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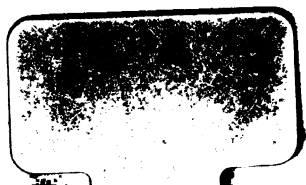
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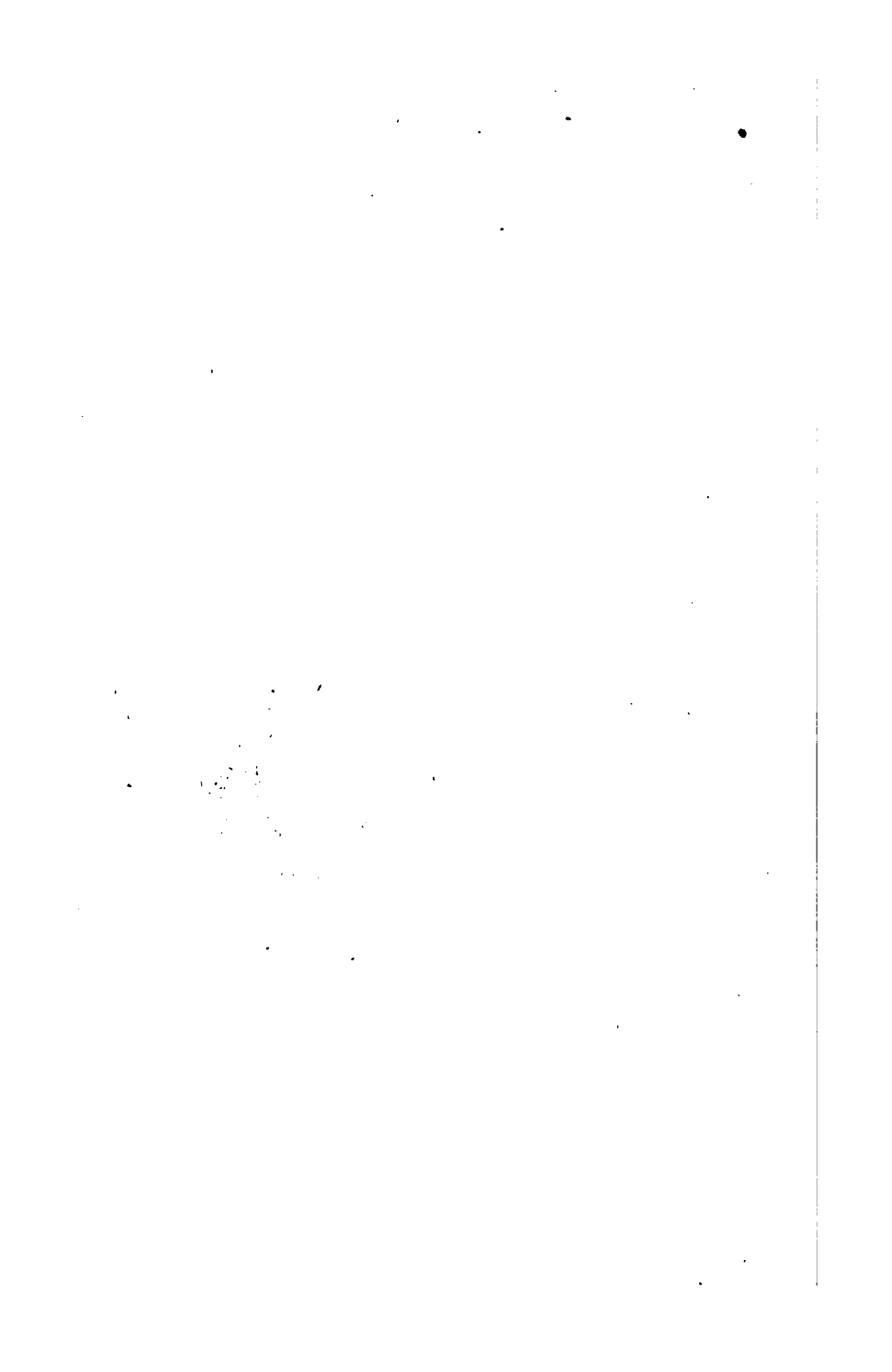
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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

INCLUDING

THE PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS.

BY

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P R E F A C E.

THE present edition of my "English Grammar" is the result of a very careful revision, based on a more thorough study of the earlier forms and idioms of our language, and guided by the light thrown upon these by the best modern authorities. It will be found that, without any material alteration in the general plan and scope of the work, the development of modern English out of the older forms of the language has been treated with sufficient thoroughness to give the learner a clear comprehension of the way in which English has come to be what it is, as regards its elements, its forms, and its constructions, without distracting his attention and burdening his memory with details which are necessary only for the minute study of particular periods or individual authors. Much of the most difficult portion of what was necessary for this purpose has been thrown into the form of notes and appendices, the study of which may, if it be deemed desirable, be postponed until the learner has mastered the general text. The latter is quite within the comprehension of a pupil of ordinary intelligence. I have striven to set down what had to be said in short and clear sentences, every expression in which has been carefully weighed with the view of securing the utmost possible accuracy, and leading the pupil to *think*. There may be teachers to whom this last-named effort is unusual and unwelcome. It will be perfectly easy for such to find books called "English Grammars," which will exactly suit their requirements. Perhaps, however, it may not be superfluous to remind them, that difficulties are not cleared away, or cleared up, by being ignored. It will be found that in several portions of the

Syntax I have been able, by following constructions up to their source, to introduce important simplifications, especially with regard to the use of relatives, and the troublesome little words *as*, *that*, and *than*.

The study of English has made rapid advances of late years, and no grammar, intended for pupils in the upper classes of schools that make any pretensions to teaching of a high character, can be deemed satisfactory, which does not go far beyond the mere statement of the current forms and idioms of our language. The welcome that has been accorded to previous editions of my work will, I trust, be extended to the present, which will be found to be in all respects an improvement on its predecessors.

For the greater portion of the fresh matter which has been introduced I am indebted to the splendid works of Mätzner and Koch, the latter of whom has traced the development of English with such care and fulness, that little of consequence has since been added to his results. I have made special reference to his work from time to time by way of reminding the reader of the source of the information given, lest he should suppose that I have been availing myself without acknowledgment of the results of later investigations. The few instances in which I have been beholden to Dr. Morris's "Historical Outlines of English Accidence" for materials not already to be found in Koch, have been scrupulously noticed. In the prefaces to former editions I have already referred to Dr. Abbott's excellent "Shakspearian Grammar" and Dr. E. Adams's scholarly work on the English Language.

C. P. MASON.

5, COLLEGE GARDENS, DULWICH,
September, 1874.

PRELIMINARY NOTICE.

THE various languages spoken by mankind admit of being grouped together in certain great *families*, the members of each of which have certain characteristics and elements in common, by which they are distinguished in a very marked manner from the members of other families. One of these families of languages has been called the Indo-European, or Aryan family. It includes the Sanscrit, Persian, Slavonian, Latin, Greek, Keltic, and Teutonic languages. The Teutonic branch of this family is divided into two principal stocks, the Scandinavian and the German; and the German stock is again subdivided into High German languages (spoken in the mountainous districts of the south of Germany) and Low German languages (spoken in the northern lowlands of Germany). English belongs to the Low German branch of the Teutonic stock, and is akin to Frisian, Dutch, Flemish, Platt-Deutsch, and Mosso-Gothic.

The inhabitants of Gaul and Britain, when those countries were invaded by the Romans, were of Keltic race, and spoke various dialects of the Keltic group of languages.

The conquered Gauls adopted the Latin language, and the Franks and Normans, who at a later time established themselves in the country, adopted the language of the people they conquered. Thus it has come about that French is for the most part a corrupted form of Latin, belonging to that group of languages which is called '*Rómance*.'

The Keltic inhabitants of Britain did not adopt the Latin language, but retained their own Keltic dialects. One of these is still spoken by the Keltic inhabitants of Wales.

English is the language brought into England by the Saxons and Angles, who in the fifth century conquered and dispossessed the British or Keltic inhabitants, and drove the remnants of them into the remote mountainous corners of the island, especially Wales and Cornwall. They were a Teutonic race, coming from the lowland region in the north-western part of Germany. The name *Angle* appears to have belonged at first only to one division of these Teutonic invaders; but in course of time, though long before

the Norman Conquest, it was extended over the rest, and the entire body of the Teutonic inhabitants of our country called themselves and their language English,* and their country England (Angle-land). In speaking of themselves they also, at least for a time, employed the compound term *Anglo-Saxon*. English thus became the predominant language in our island from the Firth of Forth† to the English Channel, and has continued so for more than thirteen centuries. During this time, it has, of course, undergone many changes. It has adopted many new words from other languages, and its forms have been altered to some extent; but it has lasted in unbroken continuity from its introduction until now.

Modern English is only a somewhat altered form of the language which was brought into England by the Saxons and Angles, and which in its early form, before the changes consequent upon the Norman Conquest, is commonly called *Anglo-Saxon*. The grammatical framework of modern English is still purely Anglo-Saxon.

As regards its form, Anglo-Saxon (or old English) differed from modern English in this respect, that it had a much greater number of grammatical inflections. Thus nouns had five cases, and there were different declensions (as in Latin); adjectives were declined, and had three genders; pronouns had more forms, and some had a dual number, as well as a singular and plural; the verbs had more variety in their personal terminations. The greater part of these inflections were dropped in the course of the three centuries following the Norman Conquest, the grammatical functions of several of them being now served by separate words, such as prepositions and auxiliary verbs. This change is what is meant when it is said that Anglo-Saxon (or ancient English) was an *inflectional* language, and that modern English is an *analytical* language.

The greater part of the foreign words that have been incorporated into English, and are now part and parcel of the language, may be divided into the following classes:—

1. *Words of Keltic origin.*—The Anglo-Saxons adopted a few Keltic words from such Britons as they kept among them as slaves or wives. These words consist chiefly of geographical

* It has been asserted that from the earliest times, Saxons, as well as Angles, called themselves 'English,' and nothing else. This is at variance with the fact that the names 'West Saxons,' 'South Saxons,' &c., were vernacular, and, as is abundantly evident from the laws and charters, were names by which the several divisions of the Saxons called themselves. The Saxon Chronicle, in dealing with the events of our history up to the time of Alfred the Great, discriminates between the Angles and Saxons, and notices the latter according to their local subdivisions. It would have been quite impossible that Alfred should style himself 'West Seaxna cyning,' if his subjects never called themselves anything but 'English.'

† Lowland Scotch is a genuine Anglian dialect, and has kept closer to the Teutonic type than modern English.

names, such as Avon, Don, Mendip, Wight, Kent, Durham, &c.; and words relating to common household matters, such as *basket*, *clout*, *gown*, *button*, *darn*, *gruel*, *mattock*, *mop*, *rug*, *wire*, &c. These are still in common use. Others are provincial words, or are found only in the older literature, and are now obsolete.

2. *Words of Scandinavian origin.*—Men of Scandinavian race (Picts, Norsemen, and Danes) made repeated incursions into this island during several centuries, and established themselves along the eastern coast. In consequence of this a good many Scandinavian words made their way into common use, and Danish or Scandinavian forms appear in many names of places in the districts occupied by the Scandinavian invaders, such as *by* ('town,' as in Grimsby); *Scaw* ('wood,' as in Scawfell); *force* ('waterfall,' as Stockgill Force); *holm* ('island' as in Langholm); *ness* ('headland,' as in Furness); *ey* ('island,' as in Orkney), &c.

3. *Words of Latin origin, and Greek Words introduced through Latin.*—Of these we have now immense numbers in English, the words of classical origin being considerably more than twice as numerous as those of Teutonic origin, there being, according to some authorities, about 29,000 of the former to about 13,000 of the latter. These words came in at various periods, and under various circumstances.

a. A few Latin words, connected with names of places, have come down to us from the time of the Roman occupation of Britain; as in Chester (*castra*), Gloucester, Stratford (*strata*), Lincoln (*colonia*), Fossbury (*fossa*).

b. A good many words of classical origin were introduced between the settlement of the Saxons and the Norman Conquest by the ecclesiastics who brought Christianity into England. These words are mostly ecclesiastical terms, and names of social institutions and natural objects previously unknown to the English. These words came direct from Latin, or from Greek through Latin.

c. A much larger number of words of Latin origin came to us through Norman-French, the acquired language of the Norman conquerors of England. After the Conquest this was of course the language of the Norman nobles and their retainers throughout England. To a more limited extent it had been introduced as the language of the court of Edward the Confessor. Most of the words in our language which relate to feudal institutions, to war, law, and the chase, were introduced in this way. English, however, never ceased to be the language of the mass of the native population, though an important change in it was at least accelerated, if not first commenced, by the influence of the Norman-French, which was established side by side with it. The numerous grammatical inflections of the older English began to be disused, and in the course of the three centuries that followed the Conquest were reduced to little more than their present number.

d. The revival of the study of the classical languages in the sixteenth century led to the introduction of an immense number of Latin and Greek words, which were taken direct from the original languages. Many of these importations have since been discarded. It often happens that the same classical word has given rise to two words in English, one coming to us through Norman-French, the other taken direct from Latin. In such cases, the former is the shorter and more corrupted form. Compare, for example, *minster* and *monastery*, *bishop* and *episcopal*, *hotel* and *hospital*, *reason* and *rational*.

4. *Words of Miscellaneous origin.*—The extensive intercourse maintained during the last three hundred years with all parts of the world naturally led to the introduction of words from most languages of importance, relating to natural productions, works of art, or social institutions, with which this intercourse first made us acquainted.

Thus it has come about that the two chief constituents of modern English are Anglo-Saxon and Latin, mixed with a small proportion of words of miscellaneous origin. Most of the Teutonic elements of English were introduced by the Saxons and Angles. But the Scandinavian races are also Teutonic, and a good many words of Teutonic origin were introduced into English by the Danes and Norsemen, who established themselves on the eastern coast of our island.

As a general rule (admitting, of course, of numerous exceptions) it will be found that words relating to common natural objects, to home life, to agriculture, and to common trades and processes, are usually of Teutonic origin. Words relating to the higher functions of social life—religion, law, government, and war, to the less obvious processes of the mind, and to matters connected with art, science, and philosophy, are commonly of classical and mostly of Latin origin. Most words of three or more syllables, and a large number of those of two, are of classical origin. The Teutonic element prevails (though very far from exclusively) in words of one or two syllables, and is by far the most forcible and expressive. Hence it predominates in all our finest poetry. It is impossible to write a single sentence without Teutonic elements, but sentence after sentence may be found in Shakspeare and the English Bible, which is pure English, in the strictest sense of that term.

One great advantage which English has derived from the mingling of the Teutonic and Romance elements is the great richness of its vocabulary, and its power of expressing delicate shades of difference in the signification of words by the use of pairs of words, of which one is Teutonic and the other French.*

The changes by which Anglo-Saxon (or the oldest English)

* Compare, for example, *feeling* and *sentiment*, *work* and *labour*, *bloom* and *flower*. The number of pairs of exactly synonymous words is small.

became modern English were gradual, and no exact date can be given for the introduction of this or that particular alteration. Still the process was influenced or accelerated at certain points by political events. The Norman Conquest, and the political relations between the conquering and the conquered race naturally made Norman-French the language of the court and the nobles, of the courts of justice, of the episcopal sees, and of garrisoned places. But the loss of Normandy in 1206, the enactments of Henry III. and Louis IX., that the subjects of the one crown should not hold lands in the territory of the other, and the political movements under John and Henry III., stopped the further influx of the Norman element. At the same time the absolutist tendencies of the kings drove the nobles into closer union with the Anglo-Saxon elements of the nation; and the French wars of Edward III. roused an anti-French feeling among all classes, which extended itself even to the language, inasmuch that we learn from Chaucer that in his time French was spoken in England but rarely, and in a corrupted form. In 1362 appeared the edict of Edward III. that legal proceedings in the royal courts should be conducted in English.

Thus the course of the changes which English underwent was far from being equable. Koch divides the historical development of English into five periods, in the following manner:—

First Period, that of old Anglo-Saxon. This period extends from the time of the oldest literary monuments to about A.D. 1100. The language was divided into two groups of dialects, the Northern or *Anglian*, and the Southern or *Saxon*. In the latter the speech of the West Saxons, in consequence of the political supremacy acquired by that division of the nation, took precedence of the rest, and became the literary dialect of England.* (The chief grammatical inflections of this period will be found in Appendix A.)

Second Period, that of late Anglo-Saxon. This period extends over about 150 years, to the middle of the thirteenth century, and shows marks of the influence of the Danish and Norman settlements in disturbing the older system of inflections, obliterating many of its distinctions, and so preparing the way for the still greater simplification which followed.

Third Period, termed by Koch *Old English*. This period, which extends over some 100 years, from about 1250 till about 1350, exhibits a continued weakening of the old forms, spoken sounds and their written representatives being both in an unsettled state, and the influence of Norman French being distinctly traceable.

Fourth Period, called by Koch *Middle English*. This period, to

* As the main part of the Teutonic elements of modern literary English have come down to us from this *West-Saxon* speech, it is obviously allowable to speak of them in the gross as *Saxon*. There are critics, however, who wax wroth at the use of the term.

which belong Wiclif, Chaucer, and Maundeville, reaches nearly to the end of the fifteenth century. In it the Midland section of the Northern dialect becomes predominant.

Fifth Period, that of *Modern English*.—For further details respecting the characteristics of these periods,* the learner is referred to Appendix A.

Leaving the vocabulary of the language out of consideration, it may be stated summarily that English has preserved from its Anglo-Saxon stage the suffixes that it still possesses in nouns and pronouns; the conjugation of its verbs; the articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and numerals; the comparative and superlative suffixes of adjectives, and the formation of adverbs; the flexibility and variety which it has in the formation of compounds; the most important part of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed; the predominant principles of accentuation; and the compactness and straightforwardness of the syntactical arrangement of its periods. To French we owe a considerable modification of the sounds of the language, the suppression of the sound of *l* before other consonants, such as *f*, *v*, *k*, *m*, etc.; the partial suppression of the sounds of *h* and *gh*, and the use of *e* mute at the end of words; the introduction of the sibilant sounds of *j*, *g*, *ch* and *c*; the use of the letter *z*, and the consonantal sound of *v*. French influence assisted in the recognition of *s* as the general sign of the plural in nouns. To French we also owe a considerable number of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed, and are probably indebted for our deliverance from that stiff and involved arrangement of sentences, under which modern German still labours. (*Mätzner*.)

* The details of the history of English Accidence and Syntax during these periods have been set forth by Koch with a fulness and minuteness which render it a difficult task to make further discoveries in the same field. Indeed, nothing of consequence has as yet been added to his results. His nomenclature is not unexceptionable, and in order to keep up the continuity of the name *English*, which certainly belonged to our language in the time of Alfred the Great, the best recent English authorities, while adopting Koch's subdivision, name the language at its successive stages, 'English of the First Period,' 'English of the Second Period,' and so on. The subdivision is, however, more elaborate than is necessary. There is no break of any consequence between the Third and Fourth Periods. No new principle of change begins to operate. We simply have in the Fourth Period a still further development, on exactly the same lines, of what was going on in the Third. There is no epoch at the dividing line of these two periods comparable to those formed by the Norman Conquest, which preceded the Third Period and the invention of printing and the revival of letters, which ushered in the latest period. It would be simpler and quite sufficient to divide English, in its historical aspect, into three periods—the first (Old English or Anglo-Saxon) embracing Koch's first two periods; the second (Middle or Transition English) comprising Koch's third and fourth periods; and the third (Modern English) coinciding with Koch's fifth period. Each of the two former has naturally an earlier and a later stage, between which, however, no exact boundary can be fixed. The names *First Period*, *Second Period*, &c., are very bald and unsuggestive, so that it requires considerable familiarity with them to be able to realize readily what particular stage of the language each represents.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GENERAL REMARKS.

- 1 WHEN we wish to express what is passing in our minds, we talk, or else write down certain marks or signs, which people have agreed shall stand for the sounds which we utter when we talk.
- 2 That which we speak with our voice, or write down to represent what we speak, is called *speech* or *language*.
- 3 Grammar (from the Greek *gramma*, 'letter') is the science which treats about speech or language.
- 4 All people do not utter the same sounds, or write the same signs to express what they think. There are different languages or tongues made use of by different nations, as the English language, the French language, the Latin language, &c. ; and since these differ widely from each other, it is necessary to have a separate grammar for each of them. These separate grammars, however, agree in many respects, and are all parts of the general science of grammar.
- 5 Speech or language is made up of words. A word is a significant combination of articulate sounds. A collection of words arranged so as to convey some complete sense, is called a sentence (Latin *sententia*, 'a thought or opinion'); as, "The boy learns his lesson;" "The cat has caught a mouse."
- 6 The words of which a sentence is made up are of different sorts. Thus in the sentence, "The bird flies swiftly," *bird* is the name of an animal; *the* points out which bird is meant; *flies* expresses an action, which it is asserted that the bird performs; *swiftly* denotes the manner in which that action is performed. The different sorts of words which a language contains are called Parts of Speech.
- 7 That part of grammar which treats of the letters of which words are composed, and of the proper mode of writing and spelling words, is called Orthography (from the Greek *orthos*, 'right,' and *grapho*, 'I write').

- 8 That part of grammar which treats of separate words, or of the parts of speech separately, showing the mode in which they are formed, and the changes which they undergo, is called Etymology (from the Greek *etymos*, 'true,' and *logos*, 'account.'
- 9 That part of grammar which treats of the mode in which words are combined so as to form sentences, and sentences combined with one another, is called Syntax (from the Greek *syn*, 'together,' and *taxis*, 'arrangement').

ORTHOGRAPHY.

- 10 Spoken words are made up of different sounds, and written words are made up of different signs, called *letters* (Lat. *litera*), which are used to represent the different sounds of which spoken words are composed.
- 11 The elementary sounds of the English language are represented by means of twenty-six letters, each of which is written in two forms, differing both in shape and in size; the large letters being called Capitals, or Capital Letters.* These letters are the following:—
- A, a: B, b: C, c: D, d: E, e: F, f: G, g: H, h: I, i: J, j: K, k: L, l: M, m: N, n: O, o: P, p: Q, q: R, r: S, s: T, t: U, u: V, v: W, w: X, x: Y, y: Z, z.
- 12 The Anglo-Saxon alphabet had no *j*, *q*, *v*, or *z*, and *k* was very seldom used, *c* having a hard sound. On the other hand it had two symbols, which have since been discarded, namely *eth* (*eth*) and *þ* (*thorn*), which both stood for *th*, *eth* occurring most frequently in the middle or at the end of words. In the thirteenth century we find *s* used, chiefly at the beginning of words. It had the sound of a somewhat guttural *y*. *W* was denoted by the symbol *b* (*wen*).
- 13 The whole collection of letters is called the Alphabet. Alpha and Beta are the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet. The English Alphabet, with the exception of the letter *w*, is taken from that used by the Romans, who, however, employed the letters *k*, *y*, and *z* only in writing foreign (especially Greek) words, and sounded *v* like our *w*. The Latin Alphabet, in its turn, was derived from the Greek, and that again from the Phœnician.
- 14 The letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u*, are called Vowels (Latin *vocalis*). They can be fully sounded by themselves.

* Capital letters are used at the beginning of proper names, for the nominative case singular of the personal pronoun of the first person, and for any noun, adjective, or pronoun, used in speaking of the Divine Being. They may also be used at the beginning of a common noun, when it is used in a special or technical sense, as *Mood*, *Voice*, *Person*. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are also written with capitals. We also write *His Majesty*, *Her Majesty*, &c.

The remaining letters are called Consonants (Latin *con*, 'together,' *sonans*, 'sounding'). They cannot be fully sounded without having a vowel either before or after them.

- 15 The extreme sounds of the vowel scale are those of *ee* (in *feet*) and *oo* (in *tool*). If the sounds of *ee*, *ā* (as in *fate*), *ä* (as in *far*), *ō* (as in *pole*), and *oo* (as in *tool*) be pronounced in succession with a full and clear sound, the speaker will be sensible that the formation and position of the organs of speech change by successive steps, from the one extreme to the other. The primary vowel sounds are *i* (as in *pin*), *ä* (as in *far*), and *ū* (as in *full*). All others are lengthenings, combinations, or modifications of these.

In Italian or German the scale of vowel sounds will be represented by the letters *i, e, a, o, u*. Modern English has the peculiarity that in this scale the sounds of *i* and *e* (*ee* and *ay*) have been transferred or 'shoved on' to *e* and *ā*. In Anglo-Saxon this was not the case. Short *i* and short *e* preserve their original force (as in *pin*, *tin*, *bid*, &c., *end*, *enter*, *set*, &c.). The words *there*, *where*, and *ere* preserve the old sound of *e*.

- 16 There are thirteen simple vowel sounds in English; the sounds of *a* in *tall*, *father*, *fate*, *fat*; the sounds of *e* in *met* and *mete*; the sound of *i* in *pin*; the sounds of *o* in *note* and *not*; the sounds of *u* in *rule*, *pull*, *fur*, and *but*. These sounds are expressed in many various ways.

The letter *a* represents four simple vowel sounds, as in *fate*, *fall*, *far*, *fat*.

The letter *e* represents three simple vowel sounds, as in *mote*, *pét*, *herd*.

The letter *i* represents one simple vowel sound, as in *pit*; and one diphthongal sound, as in *bite*.

The letter *o* represents three simple vowel sounds, as in *poke*, *pot*, *for*.

The letter *u* represents four simple vowel sounds, as in *rude*, *pull*, *fun*, *fur*.

The sound of *a* in *fate* is also represented by the written diphthongs *ai* (*braid*), *ay* (*say*), *ea* (*great*), *ei* (*neigh*), *ey* (*prey*), *ao* (*gaol*), *au* (*gauge*).

The sound of *a* in *fall* is the same as that of *o* in *for*, and is also represented by the written diphthongs *au* (*fraud*), *aw* (*claw*), *oa* (*broad*), *ou* (*ought*).

The sound of *a* in *far* is also represented by *e* (if followed by *r*) in such words as *clerk*, *Derby*, *Berkshire* (when pronounced *Darby*, *Barkshire*), and by the written diphthongs *au* (*aunt*), *ua* (*guard*), *ea* (*heart*).

The sound of *a* in *fat* is also represented by *ua* (*guarantee*), and *ai* (*plaid*).

The sound of *e* in *mete* is also represented by the written diphthongs *ea* (*seat*), *ee* (*feet*), *eo* (*people*), *ie* (*chief*), *ei** (*receive*), *ey* (*key*), *ae* (*æther*), *oe* (*Phœnician*), *ay* (*quay*), *i* (*marine*).

The sound of *e* in *pet* is also represented by *a* (*many*), *ai* (*said*), *ay* (*says*), *u* (*bury*), *ea* (*tread*), *ue* (*guest*), *ie* (*friend*), *ei* (*heifer*), *eo* (*Leonard*, *Goffrey*).

* It is convenient to bear in mind that with the exception of the words *seize* and *ceiling*, *ei* with the sound of *ee* is found only in words derived from the Latin *capio*, as *deceit* (*decipio*), *receipt* (*recipio*), *conceit* (*concipio*), &c.

The sound of *e* in *herd* is also represented by *i* (*bird*), *u* (*curse*), *y* (*myrrh*), *ea* (*earth*).

The sound of *i* in *pit* is also represented by *y* (*syllable*), *u* (*busy*), *e* (*pretty*), *ui* (*build*), *ie* (*sieve*).

The sound of *i* in *bite* is also represented by *y* (*thy*), *ey* (*eye*), *ei* (*height*), *ie* (*dies*), *uy* (*buy*), *ui* (*guide*).

The sound of *o* in *poke* is also represented by *oa* (*coat*), *oe* (*toe*), *ou* (*soul*), *ow* (*tow*), *ew* (*sew*), *ow* (*owe*), *oo* (*door*).

The sound of *o* in *pot* is also represented by *a* (*what*).

The sound of *o* in *for* is also represented by *a* in *fall*, &c. (See above).

The sound of *u* in *rude*, is also represented by *o* (*move*), *oo* (*rood*), *ew* (*flew*), *ue* (*blue*), *ui* (*fruit*), *ou* (*through*), *oe* (*shoe*); *ü* in *full* = *oo* in *good*.

The sound of *u* in *fun* is also represented by *o* (*love*), *oe* (*does*), *oo* (*flood*), *ou* (*rough*).

The sound of *u* in *fur* is also represented by *e*, *i*, *y*, *u*, *ea*. (See above).

- 17 When two vowel sounds are uttered without a break between them, we get what is called a vocal or sonant diphthong. There are four of them.

1. *i*, as in *bite*. (See above). This sound is made up of the *a* in *father*, and the *e* in *mete*.

2. *oi*, as in *hoist*. This diphthong is also written *oy* (*boy*), and *uoy* (*buoy*). It is made up of the sound of *a* in *fall*, and *e* in *mete*.

3. *eu* (as in *eulogy*). This diphthong is also expressed in writing by *u* (*mute*), *ew* or *ewe* (*few*, *ewe*), *eau* (*beauty*), *ui* (*suil*), *ue* (*hue*), *yu* (*yule*).

4. *ou* (as in *noun*). This is also expressed in writing by *ow* (*now*). When two of the letters called vowels are written together to represent either a sonant diphthong or a simple vowel sound, we get a written diphthong or *digraph*.

- 18 The letters *w* and *y* are commonly called *semi-vowels*. When they are followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, their sound approaches that of a consonant, as in *win*, *twin*, *you*, *yonder*. When a vowel precedes them in the same syllable they combine with the preceding vowel to form either a diphthong or a simple vowel sound; as *awe*, *how*, *dray*, *bey*, *buy*. *Y* is a pure vowel whenever it is followed by a consonant (as in *Ytria*). In Anglo-Saxon *y* was a pure vowel. It was never followed by another vowel, but only by consonants. Afterwards it was used at the beginning of words to denote a *g* which had been softened, and supplanted the symbol *ſ*.

- 19 The letters *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*, are called *Liquids*. They can be partially sounded by themselves when pronounced with a vowel before them. The *Liquids* and *Sibilants* do not stop the breath sharply, but admit of a prolongation of the sound. *J*, *s*, *x*, *z*, soft *g* and soft *ch*, are called *Sibilants* (from the Latin *sibilare*, 'to hiss'). The other consonants are called *Mutes*.^{*} When sounded after a vowel, they stop the passage of the breath more completely than the *liquids* and *sibilants* do. Of the *mutes*, *b*, *p*, *f*, and *v* are called *labials* or *lip-letters* (from the Latin *labium*, 'a lip'); *d*, *t*, *th* (for which in

^{*} The *Mutes* must not be confounded with *mute letters*, i.e., letters which are written but not sounded, like *k* in *knot*, or *e* in *awe*.

Anglo-Saxon there were two *symbols, *ð* and *þ*) are called *dentals* or *teeth-letters* (from the Latin *dens* 'tooth'); and *g*, *k*, hard *c*, and *ch*, (as in *loch*) are called *gutturals* or *throat-letters* (Latin *guttur*, 'throat').

- 20 The Mutes are also classified, not according to the organs by which they are pronounced, but according to certain differences in the mode in which the consonantal sound is pronounced. *p*, *t*, and *k* (or hard *c*), are called *thin* or *sharp* mutes; *b*, *d*, *g* are called *middle* or *flat* mutes; *f* and *v*, *th* in *thin*, and *th* in *thine*, *ch* in *loch*, and *gh* in *lough* are called *aspirated* mutes. The aspirates may themselves be divided into *sharp aspirates* (*f*, *th* in *thin*, *ch*), and *flat aspirates* (*v*, *th* in *thine*, *gh*). The sibilants *s* and *z* bear the same relation to each other as *p* and *b*, *s* being a sharp sibilant, *z* a flat sibilant.
- 21 A syllable (Greek *syllabe*, 'a taking together') is a single vowel, or a collection of letters pronounced together, and containing only one vowel sound.

A word which consists of a single syllable is called a *Monosyllable* (Greek *monos*, 'single'), such as *man*, *horse*, *hut*.

A word which consists of two syllables is called a *Disyllable*; as *folly*, *learning*.

A word that consists of three syllables is called a *Trisyllable*, as *vanity*, *loveliness*.

A word that consists of more than three syllables is called a *Poly-syllable* (Greek *polys*, 'many'), as *singularity*.†

- 22 When a syllable beginning with a vowel is added to a monosyllable, or a word accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled. As *sin*, *sinner*; *thin*, *thinner*; *rob*, *robber*; *sit*, *sitting*; *begin*, *beginning*; *expel*, *expelled*; *confer*, *conferred*. But if, in a word of more than one syllable, the accent does not fall on the last syllable, the final consonant is not doubled; as *offer*, *offered*; *differ*, *different*; *visit*, *visiting*. The letters *l* and *s*, however, are generally doubled, as *travel*, *traveller*; *revel*, *reveller*; *marvel*, *marvellous*; *hocus*, *hoccussing*. There are also some other words in which the rule is violated, as *worshipper*. The reason for this doubling of the consonant is that the quantity or length of the preceding vowel may be preserved. A doubled consonant usually shows that the preceding vowel is short. Compare *running* and *tuning*, *sinning* and *dining*, *manning* and *waning*. Before *ll* and *ss*, *a* and *o* are often long, as in *roll*, *stroll*, *squall*, *fall*, *gross*, *grass*, &c.

- 23 When a syllable (not beginning with *i*) is added to a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i*, as *happy*,

* The *y* in the old-fashioned way of writing *the* (*y* or *ye*) is a corruption of *þ*.

† The proper way of dividing words into syllables is not yet quite settled. The methods adopted in most spelling-books are extremely arbitrary, not to say stupid. Two very absurd rules commonly laid down are, that "if two consonants come together between vowels, they should be divided," and that "each separate syllable should, as far as possible, begin with a consonant." In accordance with these rules, one of the commonest spelling-books gives us the following divisions: — *thirs-ty*, *tre-a-tise*, *rich-teous*, *poi-gnant*, *be-nign*, *e-clipse*, *a-noint*, *bur-gher*, *cou-rier*, *fron-tier*, *guar-dian*. Such divisions have neither reason nor convenience to justify them; they are simply ridiculous. It is impossible to lay down any rules of universal application, but the principle to be kept in view should be to divide words so that the syllabic division may, as far as possible, coincide with the *etymological* division, as in *right-eous*, *front-ier*, *an-oint*, *guard-ian*, *burgh-er*. So *cap-it-al* (not *ca-pi-tal*), *soft-en* (not *sof-ten*), &c.

happily, happier; pity, pitiless. When the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed. Conversely when *ing* is added to a word ending in *te*, the *i* is changed into *y*; as *die, dying; lie, lying*. In monosyllables *y* is not changed before a consonant; as *dryness, shyly*.

- 24 Mute *e* at the end of a word is generally omitted when a syllable that begins with a vowel is added; as *force, forcible; love, loving*; but the *e* is retained if it is required to preserve the pronunciation of the consonant, as *change, changeable*.

Mute *e* preceded by a consonant at the end of a word is generally retained when a syllable that begins with a consonant is added, if the vowel sound of the last syllable of the word is long, as *pale, paleness*; but if the vowel sound of the last syllable is short, the *e* is commonly dropt, as in *judgment, lodgment*. It is retained, however, if necessary to preserve the pronunciation of the consonant that precedes it; as in *infringement*. Mute *e* is commonly employed to show that the preceding vowel is long, as may be seen on comparing *rob* and *robe, shin* and *shine, ban* and *bane, run* and *rune, men* and *scene*. It is always put after final *v*, whether the preceding vowel be long or short.

Mute *e* at the end of a word, and preceded by a vowel, is sometimes omitted when a syllable is added, as *true, truly; due, duly*; sometimes it is retained, as *eye, eyeless; true, trueness; blue, blueness*.

25. The English orthographical system has many imperfections. Thus the same vowel sound is often represented in different ways, as in the modes indicated above for expressing the simple vowel sounds and diphthongs. On the other hand, the same letter or diphthong often represents very different vowel sounds. Compare *eat, pate, call, father; read, spread; broad, coach; goes, does, shoes, foetid; cull, full, gyle*. Again, some consonants have not always the same sound. Compare *give, gin, gill* (a measure), *gill* (of a fish); *cent, can; dough, cough; arch, archangel; his, this; thin, thine*. The same sound is sometimes represented by different consonants. Compare *adds, adze; crutch, such; face, base; jury, gaol; know, no; plum, plumb; knowledge, privilege; Allip, Philip; picked, Pict*. Simple sounds are sometimes expressed by two letters, as by *ck* in *duck; ch* in *lock*; and most of the written digraphs. Complex sounds are sometimes expressed by single letters, as by *i* and *u* in *mine* and *muse; s* in *sure; j* in *just*. Hard *c, g, x*, and, perhaps, *w* and *y*, are superfluous letters; their sounds may be represented by other letters. If we include *w* and *y* as separate sounds, and the nasal *ng*, we shall have forty-one elementary sounds in English. *Wh* is pronounced like *hw*, and is not a separate sound. Consonants are often not pronounced, as in *through, plough, knell, know*. *L* after *a* or *o*, and before another consonant, is sometimes mute, as in *walk, folk*, sometimes sounded, as in *malt, fault*. *T* before *ch* is not radical, but is used simply to show that *ch* has the sibilant and not the guttural sound, as in *stitch* (from *stick*).

ACCENT.

- 26 When we speak we do not utter all words and syllables with the same degree of force. By a stress or forcing of the voice certain words and syllables have greater prominence and importance given to them. When the stress which

gives this prominence has reference to the idea which the word conveys, so that its function is *rhetorical*, it is usually called *emphasis*. When it has reference to the syntactical importance of a word, or the etymological importance of a syllable, so that its function is *grammatical*, it is usually called *accent*.

Words of two or three syllables have a stress laid upon one of these, as *tender*, *misery*, *indecent*. Words of more than two syllables have also sometimes a second accent upon the syllable next but one or next but two to that which has the chief accent, as *démocrátical*, *condescénd*, *émbarcátion*. This secondary accent is sometimes scarcely perceptible, as in *wílderness*, *térrify*.

- 27 In English two systems of accentuation have been at work, the Teutonic or genuine English, and the French. The characteristic tendency of Teutonic accentuation is to throw the stress upon the root-syllable of a word, and leave the inflections and formative syllables unaccented,* as *love*, *lover*, *loveliness*. In French the accentuation naturally in the first instance followed that of Latin, which was not etymological but rhythmical, so that the accent often shifted its position with an alteration in the number of the syllables, falling on the penult (or last syllable but one) if it was long, or on the ante-penult (or last syllable but two) if the penult was short. Hence in old French *pastor* became *pátre*, *pastórem* became *pastéur*. The omission of final syllables of inflection in French often left the accent on the last syllable, even when that was not the root-syllable. Thus *virtútem* became *virtú*; *civítdtem* *cité*. When such words first passed from French into English they naturally had their French accent, as *distánce*, *contrée* (country), *manére*, (manner); *soláce*, &c. Even in Spenser we still find *progréss*, *succóur*, *usdge*, *bonádge*, &c. Most of these adopted words however have been affected by the English accentuation, which tends to keep the accent away from the last syllable.† In words of French or Latin origin, and of more than two syllables, there is a tendency to throw the accent back on to the ante-penult, as in *monópoly*, *géógraphy*. Thus we now say *advértisement* (not *advertisement*), *théatre* (not *theatre*), *miracle*, *miráculous*, &c. French derivatives ending in *ade*, *-ier*, or *-eer*, *-ee*, *-oon*, *-ine* or *-in*, keep the accent on the last syllable. So also do adjectives which are seemingly taken from Latin with the simple rejection of the final syllable, as *benígn*, *robúst*, *humáne*, *políte*. The natural weight of the syllable has of course to be taken into account. Compare, for example, *cóncentrate* and *remónstrate*; *cosmógony* and *declénsion*, *benéfícant* and *benefáctor*. There is also a

* In compounds in which the component parts preserve a syntactical relation to each other, the accent falls as it would if the words were kept separate, as *til-will*, *ál-fóws*, *spít-fire*, *indeed*, *forsoóth*, &c. Nouns compounded with adverbial particles have the accent on the particle, as *óffshoot*, *uproar*. Verbs have it on the verbal root, as *out-dó*, *with-stánd*.

† Except in derivatives formed by prefixing an inseparable particle to a monosyllable, as *asíant*, *betwíst*, *míst úst*. In verbs a final root-syllable tends to keep its accent, as *refré*, *consént*, &c., but with exceptions, as *óffer*, *prómíse*, &c.

tendency to accentuate the root-syllable of the definitive word in a compound, as *allegory*, *mélancholy*. Words which have been adopted without alteration from foreign languages keep their original accent, as *torpédo*, *coróná*, *octavo*.

The influence of accent upon the etymological changes of words has been very important. When one syllable is made prominent, those adjacent to it, especially if short and unimportant in themselves, are pronounced carelessly, and frequently get dropped altogether. Thus we get *bishop* from *episcopus*, *reeve* from *gerefa*, *sample* from *exámple*. In this way English has lost nearly all its syllabic suffixes.

When this loss takes place at the beginning of a word, it is called by grammarians *aphaeresis* (taking away); when it occurs at the end of a word it is called *apocope* (cutting off); when two syllables are blent into one, the process is termed *syncope* (shortening by excision.)

Examples of *syncope* are seen in *lord*, from *Hlaford*; *lady*, from *Hlafweardige*; *sheriff*, from *Scirgerefa*. (Koch, i., p. 220.)

An accented syllable often gets lengthened. Thus from *hebban* we get *heave*, from *brecan*, *break*, &c.

An unaccented long syllable is apt to get shortened. Thus the adjective *minute* becomes the noun *minúte*. Compare *cupboard*, *housewife*, &c.*

ETYMOLOGY.

[N.B. In conjunction with the section on Etymology it would be well for the learner to study the first few paragraphs of that on Syntax.]

PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 28 The words of which the English language is composed are distributed into eight parts of speech. These are: 1. Noun. 2. Adjective. 3. Pronoun. 4. Verb. 5. Adverb. 6. Preposition. 7. Conjunction. 8. Interjection.

NOUN.

- 29 The word *Noun* means *name* (Latin, *nomen*.)

A noun is a word used as the *name* of anything that we speak about.

The greater part of nouns may be divided into two classes—Common Nouns and Proper Nouns.

- 30 A Common Noun is a word that may be used as the name of each thing out of some class of things of the same sort, as *horse*, *man*, *stone*, *city*; or of any portion of a quantity of stuff of the same sort, as *iron*, *wheat*, *water*. A common noun distinguishes the things belonging to some class from

* The whole subject of accentuation has been treated by Koch with extraordinary care and fulness.

everything which does not belong to that class. Thus the word *horse* distinguishes the animal so called from all other sorts of things, but does not distinguish one horse from another.

- 31 A Proper Noun is a word used as the name of some particular person, animal, place, or thing, as John, London, Bucephalus, Excalibur. The word *proper* (Latin *proprius*) means *own*. A *proper name* is a person's or thing's *own name*.

Common nouns are *significant*. They not only *denote*, or mark out, the objects to which they are applied, but also *connote*, or *note at the same time*, the whole combination of marks or attributes, through their possession of which the various individuals named by the common noun are grouped into one class.*

Proper nouns, as such, are not significant. Even if the name, considered merely as a word, has a meaning, it is not applied to the object which it denotes in consequence of that meaning. *Margaret* means *pearl*, but it is not implied that a person called *Margaret* has *pearly* qualities.

A proper noun serves to distinguish that for which it stands not only from things of a different sort, but also from other things of the same sort. Thus the name Cicero distinguishes the person who bore it, not only from a horse or a town but from other men who did not bear that name.

- 32 Proper nouns are written with a capital letter at the beginning. Proper nouns are sometimes used like common nouns, when they denote classes or collections of persons; as the Howards, the Cæsars, the Alps; or when they represent the characteristics that marked some individual, as if we say of a poet, "He was the Homer of his age."

On the other hand, some common nouns are occasionally used as the name, not of each individual in a class, but of the class *as a whole*. When we say, "Man is mortal," we mean all mankind.

- 33 A noun which in the singular number stands for a collection or number of things, is called a Collective Noun: as *herd, parliament, council, multitude, mob*.

- 34 A noun which denotes a quality or attribute, is called an Abstract Noun; as *hardness, prudence, justice*. An abstract noun always pre-supposes the existence of an adjective from which it is derived.

Since verbs are attributive words (§ 294), nouns that denote the action indicated by a verb are properly classed among the abstract nouns, as *running, speaking, action, friction*. Such nouns, however, often pass out of their abstract sense, as when we talk of 'sweeping a *crossing*.'

* Sometimes the connotative power of a noun is so much in our thoughts, that the noun is used predicatively without an article, as "He was *secretary* to Mr. A.;" "He became *king* of England;" "In this business he was both *knave* and *fool*."

- 35 There is a class of nouns which are sometimes confounded with abstract nouns. These are *General Names*, such as *colour, space, time, life, death, &c.* These, in the exact sense in which they are used, do not admit of plurals; they are significant or connotative general names.

Abstract nouns are sometimes used in the *concrete* sense, that is, standing for that which possesses the quality which they denote. Thus *nobility* frequently means the whole body of persons of noble birth; *youth*, the whole class of young people, and so on.

- 36 Nouns admit of the three variations of Gender, Number, and Case.

Gender.

- 37 Living beings are divided into two classes or *sexes*, the male sex and the female sex, the individuals in the one sex corresponding to those in the other. Things without life are not of either sex. Thus all things are arranged in three classes—things of the male sex, things of the female sex, and things of neither sex.

- 38 In like manner, nouns (and pronouns) are divided into three * classes or sorts (called *Genders*), which correspond to the three classes of things just mentioned. These are the Masculine Gender, the Feminine Gender, and the Neuter Gender. *Gender* comes from the Latin *genus*, 'a kind or sort.'

The name of anything of the male sex is called a masculine noun, or a noun of the masculine gender.

The name of anything of the female sex is called a feminine noun, or a noun of the feminine gender.

The name of anything of neither sex is called a neuter noun, or a noun of the neuter gender.

Man, king, father, horse, cock, bull, James, Henry, are masculine nouns.

Woman, queen, mother, mare, hen, cow, Mary, Jane, are feminine nouns.

Stone, tree, house, London, are neuter nouns.

In the case of animals and young children we often take no account of the sex, and hence they are frequently referred to by means of *neuter pronouns*.

* Nothing is gained either in convenience or in philosophy by the attempt to restrict the term *gender* to the masculine and the feminine. Those who run the term *neuter* so hard as this should be consistent, and translate it into *neither* when they use it. To talk of nouns being of *Neuter Gender* (especially with a capital N) is not good Latin, good English, or good sense. German grammarians, who have the terms *männlich*, *weiblich*, and *sächlich*, are spared the temptation to air this little crotchet.

- 39 *Genders* are classes of nouns (and pronouns) which correspond to the three classes of things of the male sex, things of the female sex, and things of neither sex.*

It is also customary to use the word *gender* in an abstract sense, and to speak of it as an *attribute* of nouns and pronouns. In this abstract sense *gender* may be defined to be a distinction in the form or use of nouns and pronouns, by virtue of which they stand respectively for things of the male sex, things of the female sex, and things of neither sex.

- 40 Things without life are often *personified*, or spoken of as if they were living beings, and therefore either of the male or of the female sex. Accordingly masculine and feminine pronouns are used in speaking of them. The simplicity and naturalness of the English system of genders gives peculiar force and vividness to this figure of speech.

Thus the Sun,† Time, Day, Death, rivers, winds, mountains, the ocean, the seasons, the stronger passions (as Fear, Anger, Despair), actions connected with strength or violence (as Murder, War, &c.), are looked upon as male persons, and their names are accordingly masculine.

The Moon, the Earth, Virtue, Night, a ship, countries and cities—such as Europe, England, Paris—Night, Darkness, the Arts and Sciences, most abstract conceptions, as Nature, Liberty, Charity, Victory, Mercy, Religion, &c., the Soul, the gentler emotions, and many other things, are spoken of as though they were female persons, and their names are accordingly of the feminine gender.‡

- 41 The names of animals sometimes do not indicate their sex; as *sheep*, *bird*, *hawk*, *bear*, *mouse*, *raven*, *swan*, *dove*.§ The words *duck* and *goose* are also employed in this way, especially in the plural and in compounds. Also various

* It is only in English, however, that this simple classification is observed. In Latin, Greek, French, and other languages, the names of many things which do not belong either to the male or to the female sex, are either masculine or feminine. When this is the case, gender ceases to answer (except partially) to any *natural* distinction, and becomes merely *grammatical*, though originally, no doubt, based upon a real, or fancied, natural distinction. A noun is known to be masculine (or feminine), not by its denoting a thing of the male (or female) sex, but by its having associated with it adjectives and pronouns with masculine (or feminine) terminations. This arbitrary, or merely grammatical gender has disappeared from modern English. In French and Italian there is no neuter gender at all. In Anglo-Saxon, the genders were to a great extent merely grammatical or arbitrary, as in Latin.

† In Anglo-Saxon (as in German) *Sun* was feminine.

‡ The gender employed in personification is, however, rather arbitrary. Usage is by no means uniform on this point. The feeling of appropriation has a curious influence in this matter. Cobbett remarks that the countryfolk in Hampshire call almost everything *he* or *she*. "The mower calls his scythe a *she*, the ploughman his plough; but a prong, a shovel, or a barrow, which passes promiscuously from hand to hand, and which is appropriated to no particular labourer, is called *he*."

§ In Anglo-Saxon such nouns had their *grammatical* gender, and were respectively either masculine or feminine, no matter which sex was spoken of.

names of persons, as *parent, spouse, servant,** &c. Such nouns are said to be of common gender.

- 42 In speaking of animals which have names of common gender, the neuter pronouns are employed when the animal is regarded simply as an object of natural history. But in poetry, fables, or narratives which imply a lively interest in the actions or feelings of the animal, the masculine or feminine gender is used, with a general tendency to employ the masculine for the larger and fiercer animals. Thus, *bear, hound, panther, eagle, hawk, camel, wolf, fox, hippopotamus, elephant, whale, rat, raven, bison, jackal, &c.*, would commonly be treated as masculine, while *hare, ostrich, dove, plover, lapwing, swallow, partridge, &c.*, are usually feminine. The larger domestic animals are often spoken of as if they were males.
- 43 *Sex* is a distinction between *things*, not between *names*. *Gender* is a distinction between *names*, not between *things*. It is therefore wrong to speak of the *masculine sex*, or the *male gender*: to speak of a man as a *masculine being*, or to talk of *things* being of the masculine or feminine gender. *Things* may be of the male or female *sex*, but only *words* can be of the masculine, feminine, or neuter *gender*.
- 44 The distinctions of gender in masculine and feminine nouns which stand for pairs of males and females, are made in three ways.

First Mode.—Quite different words are used: as—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid or spinster†	Horse or stallion }	mare
Boar	sow	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Brother	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull	cow	Milster	spawner
Bullock or steer }	heifer	Monk or friar	nun
Cock	hen	Nephew	niece
Colt or foal	filly	Papa	mamma
Dog	bitch	Ram or wether	ewe
Drake	duck	Sir	madam
Drone	bee	Sire	dame or dam‡
Earl	countess	Sloven	slut
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Gander	goose	Stag	hind
Gentleman	lady	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe or hind	Wizard	witch

* These nouns are usually of Romance origin.

† The termination *-ster* was originally feminine. *Spinster* is the only word in which this feminine force of it survives. In *seamstress* and *songstress* we have two feminine endings combined, one Saxon (*-ster*), the other French (*-ess*). Many words in *-ster* now used as masculine, or as proper names, were originally feminine, and denoted occupations ordinarily carried on by women, as *sewster, maltster, tapster* (a bar-maid), *Baxter* (from *bake*), *Webster* (from *webban*, 'to weave'), &c.

‡ *Grandam* (grannam or granny) answers to *grandsire*. *Sire* and *dam*, in contrast with each other, are applied only to animals.

Man (like the German *Mensch*) was formerly used of the female as well as of the male. We see this in the compound *woman*, a modified form of *wimman*—i.e., *wifman*. The vowel sound of the first syllable is still preserved in the plural, *women*.

The male was distinguished as *weapned man*—i.e., *armed* or *weaponed man*. *Maid* had come to mean in Chaucer's time a grown-up person of either sex. Thus, 'I wot well that the apostle was a maid' (*Oh.* 5661). *Girl* (a diminutive of the low German *gôr*) once denoted a young person of either sex. Chaucer (649, 666) still uses it in this manner. To distinguish the male, the compound *knave-girl* was used.

Father means 'one who feeds;' from the same root as *fee-d* and *fa-t* (compare *pa-ter* and *pa-sco*). *Mother* is from a root *ma*—'bring forth' (*Morris*). *Daughter* (Gr. *θυγάτηρ*) meant originally 'milk-maid.' The root is the same as in *dug*.

Husband (A.S. *hūsbonða*) is the manager or master of the house (*Mätzner*). *Bonda* in A.S. means *tiller* or *manager*.

In *husbandman* and *husbandry* we have vestiges of the old meaning. In Anglo-Saxon *wif* was neuter (as *Weib* still is in German), and meant simply a *woman*.

Nephew and *niece* come to us (through French) from the Latin *nepos* (*nepot-is*) and *neptis*. The older Anglo-Saxon words were *nefa* and *nefe*. *Uncle* and *aunt* are from *avunculus* and *amita*. The provincial and colloquial appellations *gaffer* and *gammer* are corruptions of *godfather* and *godmother*.

Queen (or *quean*) meant simply *female* or *mother*. In Anglo-Saxon *cwēn-fugel* means *hen-bird*.

Lord is a shortened form of *hlāford* (i.e., *hlāfweard*, 'loaf-warden,' or 'bread-dispenser' (*Mätzner* and *Koch*). *Lady* is from the corresponding feminine, *hlāfdige* (*hlāfweardige*). *Sir* or *sire* is from *senior*; *madam* from *mea-domina*; *monk* from *monachus*, 'one who leads a solitary life'; *nun* = *nonna*, 'grandmother.' *Friar* is from *frater* (Fr. *frère*).

Witch is now only feminine, but it might come indifferently from the Anglo-Saxon masculine *wicca*, or from the feminine *wicece*.* *Wizard* comes from the Scandinavian *viskr*, 'wise,' through the old French *guisart*, and means 'a very wise man' (*Mätzner*). See § 311, 7.

Drake (old Norse *andrikt*; root *and* = Lat. *anat*; *rikt*, connected with German *reich*, and Latin *reg-em*) means 'king of the ducks.' *Duck* is connected with the verb *duck*, 'to dive.' In Anglo-Saxon we find a masculine *hana*, 'cock' (Germ. *Hahn*). *Goose* has lost the letter *n* (Germ. *Gans*). *Gander* is formed from the feminine, *d* being only an offgrowth of the *n*. *Goose* is often used as a masculine, especially as a descriptive epithet, as 'Tom is a goose.' *Geese* is of common gender.

Bee is now of common gender, but was originally exclusively feminine.

45 Second Mode.—The feminine is formed by adding certain suffixes to the masculine.

1. The commonest of these, and the only one by which

* "He is such a holy witch, that he enchants societies into him."—(Shaksp. *Cymb.* i. 6.)

fresh feminines can still be formed, is *ess*, as *count*, *countess*; *host*, *hostess*.

This termination came to us through French, from the late Latin suffix *issa*. (Compare Gr. *ισσα* and *εσσα*.)

When this suffix is added, the masculine terminations *or* and *er* are usually either shortened by the omission of the vowel, as in *actor*, *actress*; *hunter*, *huntress*; or omitted altogether, as in *adulterer*, *adulteress*; so *Emperor*, *Empress*; *murderer*, *murderess*; *governor*, *governess*; *caterer*, *cateress*; *sorcerer*, *sorceress*. The masculines *author*, *mayor*, *prior*, and *tutor*, suffer no abbreviation. The *o* of *negro* and the *y* of *votary* are dropped in forming *negriss* and *votares*.

Abbess (from *abbot*) is a shortened form of *abbadess*. *Lass* is probably shortened from *laddess*. *Duchess* follows the French form *duchesse*. *Marchioness* is formed from the mediæval Latin word *marchio*. In *mistress*, the *a* of *master* is modified.

Feminines in *ess* were formerly much more common than they are now. Such words as *cousiness*, *championess*, *suitress*, *creatress*, &c., have quite disappeared.

2. Feminines in *trix* are direct importations from Latin, as *testatrix*, *administratrix*.

3. A few feminines have the Romance suffix *a*, as *sultana*, *signora*, *infanta*.

4. A few feminines have the Romance suffix *ine*, which came to us through Norman French, as *heroine* (from *hero*), *landgravine* (from *landgrave*). *Czarina* (from *czar*) has a combination of this and the last-mentioned suffix.

5. One word, *vixen*, the feminine of *fox*, preserves the old Teutonic feminine suffix *en* or *in* (compare German *inn*), the root vowel of the masculine being modified. (Compare German *Fuchs*, *Füchsinn*.)

In the oldest English we find such feminines as *gyden*, 'goddess'; *municen*, 'nun' (from *muncen*); *elfen*, 'female elf,' &c. So in Scotch, we have *carlin*, 'old woman.'

6. *Bridegroom* is a masculine formed from a feminine (*bride*). *Groom* is a corruption of *goom* (A.S. *guma* = man). *Widower* is perhaps also a masculine formed from a feminine, or *er* may be only a modification of the Anglo-Saxon ending *a* (A.S. masc. *widuwa*;* fem. *widuwa*). *Ruff* (the name of a kind of bird resembling a woodcock) has a feminine *reeve*.

46 Third Mode.—Masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns are prefixed or affixed to nouns of common gender.

* In Anglo-Saxon pairs of masculines and feminines were formed: 1, by the suffixes *-a* and *-e*, as *nefa*, "nephew," *nefe*, "niece;" *wespa*, "male weaver," *wesbe*, "female weaver;" 2, by the suffixes *-ere* and *-estre*, as *bæcere* (baker), *bæcestre*; *hoppere* (dancer), *hoppestre*; *fifelere* (fiddler), *fifelestre*, &c., of which the feminine suffix *-ster* has lost its force (see note on § 44); 3, by the feminine suffix *-er* added to the masculine, as *gāt* (goat), *gāte* (she-goat); 4, by the suffix *-en* or *-in* (see above).

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Man-servant	maid-servant	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
Man-singer	woman-singer	Dog-fox	bitch-fox
He-devil	she-devil	He-goat	she-goat
Boar-pig	sow-pig		ewe-lamb
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Bull-calf	cow-calf	Guinea-cock	guinea-hen
		Turkey-cock	turkey-hen

Sometimes proper names are used to answer this purpose, as in *jack-ass, jenny-ass; tom-cat, tib-cat; billy-goat, nanny-goat; jack-daw*. In Anglo-Saxon, *carl* and *ewen* were used, as *carl-fugel* (*cock-fowl*), *ewen-fugel* (*hen-fowl*).

Number.

- 47 Number (Latin *numerus*) is a variation in the form of nouns (and pronouns), by means of which we show whether we are speaking of one of the things for which the noun (or pronoun) stands, or of more than one.

There are two* numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

That form of the noun which is used when we speak of one of the things for which the noun stands is called the *singular number*, as *ship, horse*.

That form which is used when we speak of more than one of the things for which the noun stands is called the *plural number*, as *ships, horses*.

As it is simpler to think and speak of one thing than to think and speak of several things at once, the singular is the original form of the noun. The plural form is derived from the singular by making some change in it. The process of making this change is called *inflection*.

- 48 The plural is derived from the singular in the following ways:—

First Mode.—By adding the syllable *es*, shortened to *s* whenever the pronunciation admits of it. The full syllable *es* is now added only when the singular ends in a sibilant (*s, sh, soft ch, x* or *z*) as *gas, gases; lash, lashes; witch, witches; box, boxes; topaz, topazes*. Words like *horse, horses* really come under this rule, the mute *e* not being regarded.

The letters *es* are also added (but without being sounded as a separate syllable) after several words ending in *o*, as *hero, heroes; potato, potatoes*; after *y* when it is preceded by a consonant, the *y* being changed to *i*, as *lady, ladies; †*

* In Anglo-Saxon there was also a dual number in the personal pronouns.

† In words of this kind it is more accurate to say that *i* has been changed in the singular into *y*; as the old English way of spelling the words in the singular was *ladie, glorie, &c.* In proper names the *y* is usually retained in the plural.

and after Anglo-Saxon words ending in *lf* or *f* preceded by any long vowel sound except *oo*. In these cases the flat sound which *s* always has in *es* affects the preceding consonant, and *f* is changed to *v*, as *elf*, *elves*; *shelf*, *shelves*; *leaf*, *leaves*; *thief*, *thieves*; *loaf*, *loaves*. *Wife* and *knife* get *f* changed to *v* in a similar way—*wives*, *knives*. Nouns ending in *oof*, *ff*, and *rf*, and nouns in *f* of Norman-French origin, have only sharp *s* added to form the plural, and retain the sharp sound of the *f*, as *roof*, *roofs*; *cliff*, *cliffs*; *dwarf*, *dwarfs*; *chief*, *chiefs*; *relief*, *reliefs*. So also *reef*, *fife*, and *strife* (see *Mätzner* and *Koch*). *Beef*, *beeves*; and *staff*, *staves*, are exceptions in modern English, and other exceptions are found in the older writers, as *wharves*, *turves*, *scarves*.

- 49 All nouns except those above mentioned, and the few nouns which form their plurals in the second and third modes hereafter specified, have their plurals formed by the addition of *s* only, as *book*, *books*; *father*, *fathers*; the *s* having its sharp sound after a sharp mute (as in *books*, *cats*, *traps*), and the sound of the flat sibilant *z* after a flat mute, a liquid, or a vowel (as in *tubs*, *eggs*, *rods*, *pails*, *rams*, *nuns*, *bears*, *fleas*).

When *y* at the end of a word is preceded by a vowel, *s* only is added to form the plural, and the *y* is not changed, as *valley*, *valleys*; *boy*, *boys*. *Qu* counts as a consonant, hence the plural of *soliloquy* is *soliloquies*.

The usage in the case of words ending in *o* is arbitrary, and by no means uniform, *es* being commonly added. But *s* only is added to words ending in *io* and *oo*, and to the following words:—*domino*, *volcano*, *virtuoso*, *tyro*, *quarto*, *octavo*, *duodecimo*, *mosquito*, *canto*, *grotto*, *solo*, *rondo*.

- 50 The plural suffix *s* has arisen from dropping the vowel of the proper syllabic termination *es*, which is a modification of the Anglo-Saxon plural suffix *as*. The latter however was used only in masculine nouns. In Anglo-Saxon there were also other modes of forming the plural (see Appendix A), but the influence of Norman-French, in which *s* or *x* was the common plural suffix, led to their gradual disuse. When *as* was changed to *es* it long retained its syllabic force. Even in Spenser we find such forms as *woundes*, *cloudes*, *handes*, &c. (*Koch*.) In Middle English *ys* or *is* is often found for *es*.

- 51 Words which are not properly nouns, such as *aye*, *no*, *pro*, *con*, *extra*, *if*, &c., are sometimes used as substantives. Some writers form the plurals of these by adding *s* with the apostrophe before it ('s), as *aye's*, *no's*, *pro's*, &c.; others add *s* or *es* (*ayes*, *noes*, *ifs*, *buts*, *extras*, &c.). The latter mode is the more common, except perhaps in words ending in *o*. Some writers use an apostrophe in forming the plurals of proper names, as *the Percy's*, *the Smith's*.

- 52 **Second Mode.**—By adding *en*, as *ox*, *oxen*; *brother*, *brethren*; *child*, *children*.*

The word *kine* (the plural of *cow*), also belongs to this class. There has been a change of the vowel sound besides the addition of the *en*. *Welkin*, the *cloud-covered sky*, is considered by some to be a plural of this class (German *die Wolken*, 'the clouds').

- 53 **Third Mode.**—By changing the vowel sound of the word, as *tooth*, *teeth*; *mouse*, *mice*; *foot*, *feet*; *goose*, *geese*; *man*, *men*.†

- 54 Many Latin and Greek nouns are used in English without any change of form. The plurals of these words should be made in the same way as in the language from which they are taken. The following rules must be attended to in forming the plurals of such words:—

1. The termination *a* (in the singular) should be changed into *e*, as *formula*, plural *formulae*, [*minutia*] *minutiae*.

2. The termination *us* should generally be changed into *i*, as *tumulus*, pl. *tumuli*; *radius*, pl. *radii*.

3. The termination *um* or *on* should be changed into *a*, as *animalculum*, pl. *animalcula*; *effluvium*, pl. *effluvia*; *phenomenon*, pl. *phenomena*; so *data*, *arcana*, *addenda*, *errata*, *strata*, *desiderata*.

4. The termination *is* should generally be changed into *es*; as *analysis*, pl. *analyses*; *basis*, pl. *bases*; *axis*, pl. *axes*; *ellipsis*, pl. *ellipses*.

5. The termination *ix* or *ex* should be changed into *ices*; as *radix* pl. *radices*; *appendix*, pl. *appendices*.

6. The following forms should also be attended to:—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Genus	genera	Seraph (Heb.)	seraphim
Hiatus	hiatus	Bandit (Ital.)	banditti
Series	series	Beau (Fr.)	beaux
Species	species	Madame	mesdames
Superficies	superficies	Mister (i.e. Master)	messieurs
Cherub (Heb.)	cherubim	Miasma (Gr.)	miasmata

But if a foreign word has passed into common use, the plural may be formed in the usual English fashion. Thus we say *cherubs*, *seraphs*, *bandits*, *triumvirs*, *choruses*, *dogmas*.

Some Latin words have both a Latin and an English plural, as *appendices* and *appendixes*; *calices* and *calizes*; *vortices* and *vortexes*; *criteria* and *critterions*; *memoranda* and *memorandums*; *foci* and *focusses*; *fungi* and *funguses*. Occasionally these two plurals

* In *brethren* and *children* there is a modification of the vowel besides the addition of *en*. *Children* is a double plural, *childer* (A. S. *cildru*), being still used as a plural in Lancashire.

The second and third modes of forming the plural are restricted to a few nouns of Anglo-Saxon origin. Plurals in *-en* were more common in the older writers. Chaucer has *doughthren* and *sistren*. We find *shoon* (for *shoes*) in Shakspeare (*Hamlet* iv. 5), *eyne* or *cen* (for *eyes*) in Scott and Byron. *Assen*, *treen*, *bees* occur in old writers. *Hoosn* occurs in the Bible (*Dan.* iii. 21). *Kine* is possibly a double plural. The old plural of *cow* was *cy* or *cye*. *Kye* is still used in Scotch.

† The modified *o* in *woomen* happens to coincide with the original vowel sound of the word (144).

- differ in meaning, as *indexes* (of books) and *indices* (in algebra); *geniuses* (men of genius), *genii* (supernatural beings).
- 55 The word *die* has two plurals: *dies* (stamps for coining), and *dice* (small cubes used for gaming).
Penny has two plurals; *pennies* (a number of separate coins), and *pence* (used when we speak of a sum of money reckoned in that coin). The compounds *sixpence*, *ninepence*, &c., as the names of coins or of distinct sums, may have plurals made from them,—*sixpences*, &c.
- The plural *brothers* is now used chiefly to express the ordinary family relationship. *Brethren* is used in a more metaphorical sense, to denote members of the same community.
- Cloth* has two plurals, *cloths* and *clothes* (garments). *Paths* drops the *e* of the suffix, but has the flat sound of the *s* and *o* of the preceding consonant.
- Shot* takes a plural form only when it means the discharge of a missile.
- 56 Some nouns which were neuter and without plural suffix in Anglo-Saxon, are the same in the plural as the singular, as *sheep*, *deer*, *swine*, *neat* (*cattle*), *head*, (as in ten *head* of cattle), *yoke*, *year*, *pound*; also nouns expressing a quantity or number, or used in a collective sense, as *hundred-weight* ('the stone weighs ten *hundred-weight*'), *brace* ('he shot three *brace* of birds'), *pair*, *couple*, *dozen*, *gross* ('ten *gross* of buttons'), *couple*, *stone* ('he weighs eleven *stone*'), *fish** (meaning the race of fishes), *fowl*, sometimes *people* (meaning a number of persons), *sail* ('ten *sail* of the line'), and sometimes *fathom* and *mile* ('thirty *fathom*', 'ten *mile*'. *Shakspeare*). With these may be compared the compound attributives in 'a three-foot rule,' 'a three-penny book'; 'a four-wheel chaise,' 'an engine of a hundred-horse power'; 'a five-pound note,' &c. *Horse* and *foot*, as abbreviations of *horse-soldiers*, and *foot-soldiers*, have become collective nouns, as have *shot* ('grape-shot') and *cannon*.
- 57 Names of materials or natural productions, such as *wheat*, *sugar*, *timber*, may be used in the plural number when different varieties of the articles are spoken of; as *raw sugars*, *French wines*.
 The idea of repetition or succession is perhaps involved in such plurals as 'the *dews* of heaven,' 'the *rains* of winter,' 'the *waters* of the Nile.'
- 58 Names of sciences ending in *ics* (as *mechanics*) are plural as regards their form, but are frequently used as if they were singular.†

* Also the names of several sorts of fish, as *cod*, *salmon*, *plaice*, *trout*, *pike*, *perch*, *mackerel*, &c. On the other hand *shark*, *whale*, *sole*, *herring*, *ed*, *turbot*, *brill*, &c., form plurals in the ordinary way.

† Some have supposed that the different use of the singular *logic* and the plural *mathematics*, &c., has arisen from the fact that in the former we have adopted the Greek singular ἡ λογική (τέχνη), and in the latter the neuter plural τὰ μαθηματικά. This explanation of the use of the singular is, of course, correct, but as applied to the plural it is far-fetched and unnecessary. It is doubtful whether the first man who spoke of having the *rheumatics* thought he was representing the plural τὰ ρευματικά. When adjectives are converted into substantives, ‡ is the tendency of our language to use the plural form. A man talks of having the *rheumatics* just as in country districts, they talk of having the *dumps* or the *dismals* (Halliwell, *Dict.*) "Let them die that age and sullen have." (*Shakspeare*, *R. II.* ii. 1). English freely allows the use of adjectives as substantives, provided the plural be employed, as *eatables*, *valuables*, *greens*, *sweets*, *news*, &c.

- 59 It is a mistake to use a plural of the word *folk*, as it is a noun of multitude, and means *several persons*. We should write, *folk say*, not *folks say*. "He laid his hands upon a few sick folk" (*Mark* vi. 5). Still, the plural use is very old. It is found in Chaucer and Maundeville.
- 60 The words *riches* (Fr. *richesse*), *eaves* (A. S. *efese*), and *alms* (A. S. *ælmesse*, from *ἑλεημοσύνη*), are not really plural nouns, but are generally used as if they were in the plural number. *News* is plural in form, but is used as if of the singular number. There is no sufficient reason why *means* should ever be treated as if it were of the singular number, though several good writers use such expressions as *a means*. We now use the singular *pea* and the plural *peas*; but *pease* (Lat. *pisum*, A. S. *piſe*) has now a collective sense. *Summons* (old French *semonce*, or *semonse*), is properly singular. *Amends*, *gallows*, *sessions*, *shambles*, are plurals, but are commonly treated as singulars. *Small-pox* is plural (singular *pock*), but is used as a singular. *Odds* is used both ways, but usually as a plural. We always say *much* (not *many*) *pains*, but *pains* is usually followed by a plural verb; "your pains are registered" (*Shakspeare*).
- 61 Abstract nouns, from the nature of the idea which they denote, do not generally admit of the plural number. But when they are used to denote *varieties* or *different instances* of the quality referred to, they may have plurals, as *affinities*, *negligences*. On the other hand, some nouns have no singular, as *scissors*, *bellows*, *breeches*, *tongs*, *annals*, *dregs*, *entrails*, *hustings*, *measles*, *billiards*, *oats*, &c. The things which they represent are double or multiform. The singular *vogue* is a provincial form. The plural does not always involve exactly a repetition of the idea conveyed by the singular, as *compass*, *compasses*; *matin*, *matins*; *vesper*, *vespers*; *pain*, *pains*; *corn*, *corns*; *iron*, *irons*. Many plurals have a secondary signification which the singular has not, as *parings*, *hangings*, *leavings*, *sweepings*, &c., which denote the product of the action referred to, *effects* (property), *grounds* (dregs), *respects*, *parts* (capacity), *stocks*, *stays*, *spectacles*, *letters* (literature), *draughts*, *returns*, *gripes*, *grains*, *lists* (for tournaments), the *Furies*, *lights*, *returns*, *shrouds* (of a ship), &c.
- 62 In compound nouns like *father-in-law*, *hanger-on*, consisting of a noun followed by a definitive prepositional phrase, the mark of plurality is attached to the noun part of the compound,—*fathers-in-law*, *hangers-on*. In imperfectly fused compounds, where an adjective follows a noun, such as *court-martial*, *knight-errant*, the plural *s* is attached to the noun,—*courts-martial*, *knights-errant*. Nouns compounded of *full*, where the fusion is complete, have the *s* at the end, as *handfuls*, *mouthfuls*. All other compound nouns have the *s* at the end. (See § 300.) It is disputed whether the plural of Miss Smith should be "The Miss Smiths," or "The Misses Smith." The latter is correct, though now regarded as rather pedantic. The former is commonly used, and must now be regarded as a well-established form. It is perhaps right, on the supposition that "Miss-Smith" is to be regarded as a compound name. So "the two Doctor Thomsons" (*Goldsmith*). The words *twelvemonth* and *fortnight*, used as singulars, are relics of a usage which was once quite common, as "this seven year" (*Shakspeare's Much Ado*, &c.) Even if the noun was

in the plural,* the compound was treated as a singular (as we still say, 'a sixpence,' or a 'twopence'); as "a twenty bokes"† (*Chaucer*); "a tedious twelve years" (*Fletcher*); "this fourteen years" (*Measure for Measure*).

Case.

- 63 Things of which we speak by means of nouns stand in various relations to other things, and to actions and attributes. Consequently, when these relations are expressed in language, nouns have various relations to other words in the sentences in which they are employed. In the sentence, "The horse eats the man's hay," *horse* stands for that which does the action described by the verb; *hay* stands for that upon which the action is performed; *man's* is used to indicate to whom the hay belongs. The words *horse* and *hay* have each a certain connexion with the verb *eats*, and *man's* has a certain connexion with the noun *hay*. Some languages have several different terminations which nouns are made to assume, to indicate the various relations in which they stand to other words. These different forms of the noun are called *cases*. The word *case* (Lat. *casus*) means *falling*. The ancient Greek grammarians took a fancy to represent that form of a noun in which it is used when it is the subject of a sentence, by an upright line, and compared the other forms to lines *falling* or *sloping off* from this upright line at different angles. Hence a collection of the various forms which a noun might assume was called the *declension* or *sloping down* of the noun. What we call the Nominative Case was called the *upright case*.
- 64 *Case* may be defined to be "the form in which a noun or pronoun is used, in order to show the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence."

* This usage still prevails in the case of multiples. We say 'twice five is ten,' because 'twice five' is treated as a single sum, though the full phrase of course is "twice five things are ten things." The *amount* is considered rather than the mode of its formation. When the latter idea is prominent, the plural is better, as 'twice five make ten!' The use of the plural *times* does not affect the question, because in 'three times ten is thirty,' *times* is not the subject of the sentence. *Three times* is an adverbial adjunct of the numeral *ten*, like *twice* or *thrice*.

† It must not be forgotten however that in Anglo-Saxon *twenty*, *thirty*, &c. were substantives, (like *hundred* and *thousand*), and took a genitive case after them. 'Twenty men' was 'a twenty of men.' Also combinations like 'three and twenty,' 'nine and thirty,' were treated as compound substantives, and preceded by the indefinite article. The substantive use of the adjective numerals may have been introduced through a false analogy. In a similar way we may perhaps account for such genitives as, 'for forty's sake,' 'for ten's sake.'

The process of forming the different cases of a noun is called *inflection*.

In English there are now* three cases, the Nominative Case, the Possessive Case, and the Objective Case. †

In some of the pronouns these three cases are all different; in nouns the nominative and objective cases are alike.

- 65 The **nominative case** is that form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used when it is the subject of a verb; that is, when it stands for that about which something is said by means of a verb. In the sentence, "Men build houses," the noun *men* stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb *build*. The noun *men*, therefore, is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *build*. In the sentence, "The boy was struck by his brother," the noun *boy* stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb *was struck*, and therefore the noun *boy* is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *was struck*. If the verb of the sentence be in the active voice, the subject of the verb stands for the doer of the action described by the verb. If the verb be in the passive voice, the subject of the verb stands for the object of the action described by the verb. In either case the subject stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb.

* English was anciently a much more inflected language than it is now. When it was in its Anglo-Saxon stage, nouns and pronouns had five cases, answering to the Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative of Latin, the dative and ablative being often alike in nouns. There were also various separate declensions of Nouns (see Appendix). In modern English (as in French) the use of case-endings has to a great extent been replaced by the use of prepositions. The function of a preposition was originally to give greater definiteness to the somewhat vague idea expressed by a case-ending. Thus, in Greek the genitive case denoted *from*, the dative *at*, the accusative *to*. The preposition *παρά* conveyed the idea of *alongside of*, and so the genitive preceded by *παρά* meant *from the side of* something; the dative preceded by *παρά* meant *at the side of* something; the accusative with *παρά* meant *to the side of* something. Similarly in Latin the accusative case marked *motion* to some object. If motion *to the inside* of the thing was to be expressed, the vague notion expressed by the accusative was defined by prefixing the preposition *in*; if motion *to the outside* only was implied, *ad* was prefixed. The use of all prepositions originated in this way. They did not govern cases, i.e., require certain cases to be used after them, but were prefixed to cases to give greater definiteness to the idea already expressed by the case itself. It will easily be seen how, in course of time, the case-ending in the word that followed a preposition would become superfluous, when prepositions were uniformly employed before the same cases. As an accusative always came after *ad*, and an ablative after *de*, it became needless to put any case-ending at all; the preposition itself became all-important and sufficient. But though in modern English and French a preposition followed by a noun is the *substitute* for a case, it is wrong to call that combination itself a case. If a preposition and noun together make a case, it follows necessarily that there are as many cases as there are prepositions.

† Nominative comes from the Latin *nomino*, 'I name'; possessive, from the Latin *possideo*, 'I possess'; objective, from the Latin *objicio*, 'I throw towards.'

- 66 The noun in the nominative case is the answer to the question made by putting *who* or *what* before the verb. Thus in the preceding sentence: "*Who build houses?* Ans. *Men.*" "*Who was struck?* Ans. *The boy.*" *
- 67 The possessive case is that form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used in order to show that something belongs to the person or thing for which it stands. Thus, in the sentence, "I saw John's book," the noun *John's* is in the possessive case, to denote that John possesses something (namely, a book). *John's*, then, is the possessive case of the noun *John*.
- 68 The noun in the possessive case is in the attributive relation to the noun which stands for that which is possessed.
- 69 As what is possessed must be a person or a thing of some kind, a noun in the possessive case can only be in the attributive relation to a noun.†
- 70 The possessive case in the singular number, and in those plurals which end in any other letter than *s*, is formed by adding the letter *s* with an apostrophe before it (thus, *'s*) to the nominative case; as, *John's*, *men's*, *geese's*. In those plurals which end in *s* the possessive case is indicated in writing by placing the apostrophe after the *s*, as, "the *birds's* feathers." Formerly the plural in *s* was used as a genitive or possessive without further mark, as 'Crises-lore and his *apostles* twelve He taught' (*Chaucer*, C. T. 529).
- 71 Sometimes the possessive case in the singular number of nouns that end in *s*, *x*, or *ce* is merely marked by placing an apostrophe after the word; as, *Æneas'son*; "Look, in this place ran Cassius' dagger through." But this practice is now nearly obsolete, except in a few common instances; as, "for conscience' sake," "for goodness' sake." It is found in Anglo-Saxon, as 'Urias wif;' 'Mattheus gerecydyns.'
- 72 In Anglo-Saxon the genitive termination *-es* (for which at a somewhat later period *-is* or *-ys* was often used) was restricted

* Such expressions as, "The noun *boy* is the *nominative case* to the verb," are incorrect. *Case* is equivalent to *form*. Now a *noun* is not a *form*, nor would there be any sense in talking of the *nominative form* to a verb. The case of a noun is not its relation to a verb, but the form which indicates that relation. Of course this fundamental distinction between a noun and the form of a noun is not affected by the accident that in English the nominative and accusative cases of nouns are alike. The incorrectness of the mode of speaking above referred to is rendered evident in an amusing manner by the mistake which beginners in Latin frequently make of explaining the accusative case which precedes an infinitive mood by saying that the noun in the accusative is the *nominative* to the verb.

† This noun is sometimes omitted. Thus we say, "He went to the baker's," i. e., to the baker's shop. "A picture of my father's" means "a picture of my father's pictures," or "one of my father's pictures." "A picture of my father," on the other hand, means "a painted representation of my father." See, however, † 168, note.

to the singular, and was not the only genitive suffix. (See Appendix A.) It formed a separate syllable.* The syllabic *-es* is often found in Spenser, and traces of it occur even in Shakspeare, as in "To show his teeth as white as whales bone" (*Love's L.L.*, v. 2); "Swifter than the moones sphere" (*Mids. N. D.*, ii. 1); "You sent me for a ropes end as soon" (*Com. of E.*, xxiv. 1).

- 73 The apostrophe in the possessive case singular marks that the vowel of the syllabic suffix has been lost. We still see the vowel in *Wednesday*, i.e., *Wodnesday*. It is therefore an unmeaning process to put the apostrophe after the plural *s* (as *birds'*), because no vowel has been dropped there.† In such possessives as *Thomas's* the vowel is sounded in speaking, but omitted in writing. This genitive or possessive termination *es* or *'s*, was not affixed to feminine nouns in Anglo-Saxon, except in adverbial genitives, as *nihtes* 'by night.' We still say *Lady-day* and not *Lady's-day*. (See Morris, *Spec.*, p. xix.)

- 74 The general use of the apostrophe is comparatively modern. Milton did not use it. We find it however already employed by Robert of Gloucester, who also uses *-es* or *-ys*.

- 75 In the case of a complex name, the termination of the possessive case is only affixed to the last of the names; as "Julius Caesar's death;" "John Thomas Smith's father." It is even usual to carry out the same principle when *one thing* is possessed by several persons; as, "John, William, and Mary's uncle;" that is, the uncle of John, William, and Mary. This practice, however, cannot be defended on grammatical principles. In compound nouns like *father-in-law*, or when a noun is followed by determinative adjuncts of any kind, as 'Henry the Eighth,' 'The Queen of England,' 'Smith the baker, &c.' the possessive sign *'s* is placed at the end,‡ as 'My father-in-law's house,' 'the Queen of England's name,' &c. We no longer allow such constructions as "It is Othello's pleasure, our noble and valiant general." The Anglo-Saxon usage was to put both nouns in the genitive.

* It is almost incredible how many persons have been induced to adopt the silly notion that the *'s* of the possessive case is an abbreviation for *his*, so that *the king's crown* is *the king his crown*. The word *his* is itself the possessive case of *he*; so that, on this principle, *his*=*he*+*his*=*he*+*he*+*his*=*he*+*he*+*he*+*his*, and so on *ad infinitum*. Moreover, *Mary's bonnet* must be explained to mean *Mary his bonnet*. The mistake is so stupid, and shows such blank ignorance of the principles of grammatical forms, that one wonders how the notion could have originated. It is quite true, however, that the use of *his* after a noun, in place of a simple possessive suffix, is of very early origin and was widely prevalent. Some (as Ben Jonson) suppose that the alteration of the possessive termination *-es* into *-is*, and its pronunciation as a distinct syllable led to the usage. It is more probable that it arose from a pleonastic use of the pronoun, which is found also in the other cases, as "He Moyeses and King Salomon" (*Chaucer*, 10564) "the sepulchre of him Darius" (*ib.* 6080); "The nobles they are fled" (*Shaksp. Rich. II.*, ii. 2).

† The plural *books* has just as good a right to an apostrophe as the possessive singular, a vowel having been omitted. The Anglo-Saxon termination was *-as*.

‡ This power of treating an inflected form or a complex phrase as though it were a single declinable word, and adding inflections to it, is very remarkable in English. Thus in Anglo-Saxon the genitives of the personal pronouns were treated as pronominal adjectives and declined; an inflected infinitive was used after *to* to form the gerund (see *Gerund* § 197), and even such a compound as *nathwylc* (*ne wat hwylc* = I know not which), has suffixes like an ordinary adjective, as "in nathwylcum," 'in I-know-not-what dwelling.'

76 The possessive 's is the only case-suffix of nouns that has come down to us. The letter *s*, as the characteristic of the genitive suffix, is of general occurrence in the Aryan languages.

77 The meaning of the possessive case is sometimes expressed by means of the preposition *of*, with the objective case after it. Thus, for "My father's house," we may say, "The house of my father." But the possessive case must not be substituted for the preposition *of*, unless *possession* is implied by it. This use of *of* is not found in Anglo-Saxon.

78 In old English there is a use of the possessive case which has now disappeared, and which corresponds to what is called the *objective genitive* in Latin (as *amor pecunie*, "the love of money"). Thus in the English version of the Bible, *Thy fear* is used for *the fear of Thee*. In Shakspeare *his taking off* means *the taking off of him*.

The possessive inflection 's may be added to nouns that denote persons, animals, or things that are personified, as "John's book;" "the cat's tail;" "reason's voice." Also when the noun is commonly preceded by the definite article, as "the sun's light;" "the earth's surface;" "the lightning's glare." Also in some idiomatical phrases, as with the word *sake*, "For his oath's sake;" "For thy name's sake;" "A day's journey." Poetry admits this possessive much more frequently than prose.

79 The objective case is that form in which a noun or pronoun is used when it stands for the object of the action spoken of in some verb, or when it comes after a preposition. In the sentence, "The stone struck the boy," the act of striking is spoken of as being directed to a certain object, namely, *boy*. The word *boy*, which stands for the object of the action, is called the *object of the verb*, and is in the objective case. It is in the Objective Relation to the verb (§ 366). In the sentence, "John was riding in a coach," the noun *coach*, which comes after the preposition *in*, is in the objective case.

80 The objective case is often used, like the Latin dative, to denote the *indirect object* of a verb, that is to say, it stands for some person or thing indirectly affected by the action, but not the direct object of it; as "Tell *me* a tale;" "Rob *me* the exchequer." In such cases the word in the objective case is in the Adverbial Relation to the verb (§ 372, 4).

81 When a noun in the objective case is the object of a verb, the noun in the objective case answers to the question formed by putting *whom* or *what* before the verb and its subject. As in the example given above, "Whom or what did the stone strike?" *Ans.* "The boy."

82 In nouns the objective case is the same in form as the nominative. The noun which is the subject of the verb, and therefore in the nominative case, is generally put before the verb (in assertions, not in questions): the noun which is the object of the verb is generally put

after the verb. These rules, however, are by no means invariable. The former is frequently disregarded in poetry, or when an adverb or adverbial phrase is used before the verb and its subject; as, "On rushed the foe;" "By the wayside sat an old man." The second rule is also sometimes neglected for the sake of emphasis: as in such a sentence as "The two brothers were equally guilty; John he punished, but William he forgave."

- 83 Strictly speaking, it ought to be said that *nouns* in English have only two cases or forms; one (such as *man, dog*) for which a new name would have to be invented, used indifferently for the subject and for the object of verbs; the other, the possessive case. But, as pronouns have three cases, and in other languages it is very common for the nominative and accusative cases to be alike, it does not seem worth while to alter the commonly received arrangement.*

- 84 The following are examples of the declension of nouns in English:—

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative Case</i>	Man	Men.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Man's	Men's
<i>Objective Case</i>	Man	Men.
<i>Nominative Case</i>	Father	Fathers.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Father's	Fathers'.
<i>Objective Case</i>	Father	Fathers.

ADJECTIVE.

- 85 When we think or speak of anything, we frequently have in mind not only the thing itself, but some quality or attribute that it possesses, or some fact or circumstance respecting it. We may think of a *rose*, and at the same time have in our minds the idea that it is *red*, and so speak of it as a *red rose*. We may be speaking about a *child*, and at the same time connect with it the idea that it is a *child* just spoken of or pointed to, and so speak of it as *this child*. We may speak of some birds, and at the same time

* The endeavour to distinguish a *dative* and an *accusative* case in modern English, is at variance with the genius and history of the language. We see from the pronouns (see Appendix A), that the form which maintained its ground was the dative, which first ousted the ablative, and usurped its functions, and then did the same with the accusative. It is unphilosophical to re-introduce grammatical distinctions which a language has ceased to recognise. One might as well attempt to restore the Locative Case to Latin, or the Ablative to Greek. As there is but one form (*him, her, them, &c.*) to denote both the direct and the indirect object, not only is nothing gained, but an important piece of linguistic history is obscured by having two names for it. It is much better to use the common name *objective*. It is true that there are two uses of the objective case, but that is another matter. A *case* is not the same thing as the *relation* that it expresses, any more than a *noun* is the same as the *thing* which it names.

indicate that there are *three* of them, and so speak of them, as *three birds*. The words that are used in this way with nouns are called Adjectives.*

- 86 *Definition.* An adjective is a word used with a noun to denote some quality, attribute, or fact, which we connect in thought with that for which the noun stands, so that the adjective and noun together form a compound description of that which we have in our thoughts.†

In the phrase *a white horse*, the word *white* is an adjective. It denotes a certain quality of the horse.

In the sentence, *I saw two men*, the word *two* is an adjective. It points out a fact respecting the men, that they were two in number.

In the sentence, *I love this child*, the word *this* is an adjective. It points out, with regard to the child spoken of, the fact that it answers to a certain designation made either by words or by pointing.

- 87 When it is attached directly to the noun to which it refers, an adjective is said to be used *attributively*; as "*a red ball*;" "*a bird flying through the air*." When an adjective is connected with a noun by means of some part of the verb *be* (or some other verb of incomplete predication, such as *become*), it is said to be used *predicatively*; as, "*the ball is red*," "*the bird was flying*."

A word is known to be an *adjective* when it can be put before a noun so as to denote some attribute or fact respecting that for which the noun stands. *What* and *which* are adjectives, for we can say *what man?* *which child?* *Who* is not an adjective, for we cannot say *who man?* or *whom woman?*

- 88 As an adjective is not the *name* of anything, nor a word used as the substitute for a name, an adjective can never be used as the subject of a sentence, or as the object of a verb, or be governed by a preposition.

- 89 Adjectives may be distributed into the following classes:—Qualitative Adjectives, Quantitative Adjectives, and Demonstrative or Determinative Adjectives.

- 90 1. **Qualitative Adjectives**, *i.e.*, adjectives which denote

* Latin *adjectivus*, "capable of being annexed or attached to something," from *adjectus*, "annexed or added to something."

† It is a mistake to call an adjective the *name* of a quality or attribute. Before we can name anything, it must be made a separate object of thought, and the name of anything that we can think or speak about is a *noun*. *Whiteness* is the name of a certain quality, and is a *noun*. *White* denotes the quality, but does not name it.

Beware of the absurdity of saying that "an adjective denotes the quality of a noun." A *noun* is a *name*. When we speak of a *red rose*, the adjective *red* does not denote a quality of the *name rose*, but of the *thing* for which the name stands. The blunder is very obvious, but is nevertheless committed in most English Grammars.

some *quality* or *attribute* (from the Latin *qualis*, 'of which sort'), as *virtuous, high, white, beautiful, such,* same, only.*†
The verbal adjectives called Participles belong to this class.

- 91 2. **Quantitative Adjectives**, i.e. adjectives which denote the idea of *number* or *quantity*, which we connect with that of which we speak (from the Latin *quantus*, 'how great'). This class includes—

a. The Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, *one, two, three, &c.* (The words *hundred, thousand, million*, like *pair* and *dozen*, are nouns. They may be used with the indefinite article before them.†)

b. The words *all,§ any, some, half, many, few, little, less, least, enough, much, more, most, both, several, whole, none* or *no* (=not any).

Examples. 'All men are mortal.' 'He rode all day long.' 'He sleeps all night.' 'He travelled all the next day.' 'Some men prefer this.' 'Give me some wine.' 'We had a half holiday.' 'Wait half an hour.' 'Few persons will believe that.' 'He has but little wealth, and less wisdom.' 'He has not given me the least trouble.' 'I have had enough wine.' 'Give him money enough.' 'I have much pleasure in doing this.' 'He has more sense than his neighbour.' 'Most persons admire valour.' 'He had both eyes put out.' 'They are both in fault.' 'He has eaten a whole apple.' 'Make no noise.' 'Give none offence.' 'Give none occasion to the adversary.'

- 92 Some of these words are also used as substantives:—

All. 'All is lost.'

Few. 'I have a *few* shillings.' The phrase *a many* is equally legitimate, but is obsolete. In A.S. *mænigeo*, 'multitude,' was a noun.

* When *such* is used with a noun which is preceded by the indefinite article, the article comes between the adjective and the noun; as, *such an event, such a sad story.*

† In such phrases as 'my only son,' *only* is always either an adjective used attributively, or an adverb. In "There are only four persons present;" "He only was saved;" "He is only pretending," *only* is an adverb. *Only* is never by any chance used *instead of a noun*. It is therefore absurd to call it a *pronoun*. *Only* (A.S. *enlic* = one-like) is a derivative from *an* = *one*.

‡ In Anglo-Saxon they were followed by the genitive case, as though we said 'A hundred of sheep,' &c. (See App. A.)

§ The words *all, half, little, less, least, much, more, most, enough*, are also used as adverbs; as "all round the world;" "half afraid;" "I am but little encouraged by that;" "he is less careful than his brother;" "he is the least ambitious man that I know;" "he is much more studious than he used to be;" "he is most anxious to succeed;" "he is tall enough."

¶ *Few* used as an adjective involves a negation of there being *many*. "He has few friends." *A few*, when *few* is used substantively, involves a negation that there are *none*; it implies *some, but not many*. *Little* is used in a similar way. In Anglo-Saxon *few* (*feawa, fea*) was used in the singular for 'a small quantity.' Scotchmen still say 'a few porridge.'

Little, less, least; as, 'Little was said.' 'Less will not suffice.' 'Least said, soonest mended.' 'Give me a little of that.'

Enough. 'Enough is as good as a feast.'

Much, more, most. 'Much has been said, but more remains to be told.'

Whole. 'He spent the whole of the day in playing.'

None. 'None are altogether without hope.'

- 93 *Little, less, and least*, when they are used before a noun and are themselves preceded by an article, are qualitative adjectives; as, 'a little boy.' The comparative of *little*, in this sense, when it is used attributively, is often written *lesser*; as, 'the lesser evil of the two.'

Least, in the qualitative sense, is nearly obsolete, except in one or two phrases; as, 'Not in the least degree.'

Many may be used with a noun in the singular,* provided the indefinite article be placed before the noun; as, 'Many a man has lost his life by these means.'

- 94 *All, no, none, some, enough*, may denote either *number* or *quantity*; as, 'all men,' 'all the way,' 'some pens,' 'some beer,' 'no money,' 'no friends,' &c. When *all* denotes quantity, the definite article is commonly placed between it and the noun. 'All day' and 'all night' are exceptions.

The use of *none* before a noun is now old-fashioned. It differs from *no* as *mine* differs from *my*; i.e., *no* is used when the noun which it relates to is expressed, and *none* when the noun is not expressed; as, 'I have no horse, and my neighbour has none.'

- 95 In Anglo-Saxon *none* (nān = ne ān, 'not one') was used as a singular both adjectively and substantively with reference (not to *quantity*, but) to *number*. Its substantive use as a singular is becoming obsolete, but was formerly common, as in "None but the brave deserves the fair" (*Dryden*). *No* is a shortened form of *none* as *my* is of *mine*. The combination *no one* is pleonastic, for *no* by itself means *no one*.

- 96 The quantitative numeral *one* is often used substantively, meaning a single individual of some kind already mentioned. When thus used, it may even have a plural. 'Give me another pen, this is a bad one,' or, 'these are bad ones.'

- 97 *Both* has the effect of directing the attention to each of two things spoken of, while at the same time the two are spoken of together. The assertion therefore is made, grammatically speaking, of the two things together, while in sense it is made of each separately.

- 98 3. **Demonstrative or Definitive Adjectives** (Latin *demonstro*, 'I point out') are adjectives which point out which thing or things we are speaking of, out of the class of things denoted by a common noun.—To this class belong
a. The Definite Article *the*.

* So *multus* and *plurimus* in Latin. "Plurimus in Junonis honorem aptum diocet equis Argos."—*Horace*.

b. The so-called Adjective Pronouns, or Pronominal Adjectives, comprising the following classes:—

1. The Demonstrative Pronouns *this, these, that, those*.
2. The Interrogative and Relative Pronouns *which, what and whether*.
3. The Distributive Pronouns *each, every, either, neither*.
4. The Indefinite Pronouns *any, other, some*.
5. The Possessive Pronouns *my, thy, his, &c.*
6. The Reflective Pronoun *self*.

c. The Ordinal Numerals, *first, second, third, &c.*

99 In speaking we do not always express all that we have in our thoughts, when what is expressed shows clearly enough what is to be understood as *meant*, though not expressed. One result of this is, that adjectives are very often used without having the nouns to which they relate expressed. Thus, "The *good* are happy;" *i.e.*, good people. "Blessed are the *meek*;" *i.e.*, meek persons. Adjectives are then said to be used substantively. When speaking of *persons*, the singular is now avoided, though it used to be common, as "The poor is hated . . . but the rich hath many friends" (*Prov.* xiv. 20); "There will a worse come in his place" (*Shaksp.*) This use of Adjectives in the singular is now restricted to *general* or *abstract* ideas, as "The sublime," "The beautiful." In most cases adjectives used substantively must be preceded by a demonstrative (*the* or *these*) or a possessive, as 'our dearest;' but they may be used without the definite article when they are in pairs of opposites, as "I will follow you through *thick and thin*"; "For *better or worse*"; "*High and low, rich and poor* together." Also in a few phrases, as "He has this character *in common* with his neighbours"; "*In general* he avoids such mistakes"; "He recommended this *in particular*"; "*At least*"; "*At random*"; "*In future*."

100 This use of adjectives is especially common with the quantitative and demonstrative adjectives. Thus, "*Many* (persons) are called, but *few* (persons) are chosen;" "*All* (men, or persons) heard, and *some* obeyed;" "I know *that*;" "I heard *what* you said." (See § 88.)

101 The preceding use of adjectives must be distinguished from the cases in which certain adjectives are used so completely as substan-

* When *what* and *which*, *that* and *this*, are used substantively, they are only of the neuter gender, unless they are connected by the verb *is* with a substantive, as "Which is the king?" "This is he," "That is the man." *These* and *those* may be of any gender.

tives, that they have the ordinary inflections of nouns. The adjectives which admit of this are—

1. National names, such as *German, Italian, Roman*. We say, "A Roman's rights"; "The Germans crossed the Rhine"; "The Italians' love of art." Those names which end in a sibilant sound (*Dutch, Chinese, &c.*) do not admit of inflection.
 2. Names denoting the members of a sect or party; as *Christian, Lutheran, Stoic, Jacobite, &c.*
 3. Various Latin comparatives, as *senior, junior, inferior, &c.*, with the Anglo-Saxon *elder* and *better*.
 4. Various adjectives denoting persons, and of French or Latin origin, as *native, mortal, noble, saint, criminal, ancient, modern, &c.*, together with a very few of Anglo-Saxon origin, as *black, white, heathen*.
 5. Adjectives used as substantives in the plural only, as *vitals, intestines, eatables, moveables, valuables, greens, the blues, sweets, &c.* (See § 58, note).
 6. The adjective *other*. Some writers also use *either's* and *neither's* in the possessive singular.
- 102 Adjectives, in modern English, are not declinable words. With the exception of the words *this* and *that*, which have plural forms, *these* and *those*, and *self*, which has a plural *selves*, no adjective in English indicates gender, number, or case, by means of inflection.
- 103 The Anglo-Saxon adjectives were inflected to mark gender, number, and case. (See App. A.) By the time of Chaucer the various suffixes had been reduced to an inflectional *e* in the plural, especially of adjectives of one syllable, and of adjectives used substantively, and at the end of adjectives preceded by demonstratives and possessives.*

Comparison of Adjectives.

- 104 Adjectives admit of three varieties of form, called Degrees of Comparison. These are the Positive Degree, the Comparative Degree, and the Superlative Degree.
- 105 The Positive Degree of an adjective is the adjective in its simple form, used to point out some quality or attribute of that which we speak about, as "A *black* cat," "A *fine* day."
- 106 When we wish to indicate that one thing,† or set of things, possesses the same quality or attribute as another, but that it possesses the said quality or attribute in a greater degree

* Shakspeare has preserved a solitary specimen of the old genitive plural suffix *er* (A. S. *-ra*) in the word *alderliest* (for *alderliuest*, *d* being an offgrowth of *i* before *r*), meaning 'dearest of all' (*II. King H. VI.*, i. 1). Compare the German *allerliebste*. In Chaucer we find *alderleuest*, *alderfirst*, as well as *youre aller* = 'of you all.' In *olden*, *en* is perhaps a relic of the ancient inflection.

† The word *thing* means generally whatever we can think about, i.e., make a distinct object of thought, including *persons*, as well as what we commonly denominate things.

than the other thing or set of things, a change is made in the form of the simple adjective to mark this. The syllable *er** is added, before which a mute *e* is dropped, as "My knife is *sharper* than yours;" "John's book is pretty, but mine is *prettier*†;" "Your parents are *richer* than mine;" "This soldier is *taller* than those;" "These books are *larger* than that one." In these examples, it will be seen that one thing may be compared either with one thing or with a set of things, and that one set of things may be compared either with another set of things or with a single thing.

- 107 The Comparative Degree of an adjective is that form of it by means of which we show that one thing, or set of things, possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing, or set of things.

- 108 It must not be imagined that the comparative degree expresses the existence of more of a certain quality in an object than the positive degree does. If we say, "William is a clever boy," and "John is cleverer than Thomas," we are not to infer that *cleverer* in the second case implies the existence of more cleverness in John than the adjective *clever* implies in the case of William. The fact may be that William is cleverer than John. The positive degree is used in the one case simply because William is not compared with any one else; and the comparative degree is used in the second case because John is compared with Thomas.

Even the use of an adjective in the positive degree often implies some standard of comparison; as when we use such words as *high*, *great*, &c. But this results only from the meaning of the words themselves, and does not affect the grammatical use of the words.

Some adjectives which are comparatives in origin are now used as positives, though they still involve the idea of *relation* in space or time. Such are *former*, *latter*, *elder*, *upper*, *inner*, &c.

- 109 When one *attribute* is compared with another in respect of degree, *than* must be used without an ellipsis of the verb following, as 'It is broader than it is long.' We cannot say 'It is broader than long.' But the ellipsis is allowable when *more* is used, as 'He is more witty than wise.' Such a sentence as 'Your company is fairer than honest' (*Shakspeare, M. for M.*, iv. 3) is not correct. In Latin and Greek two comparatives were used, as *verior quam gravior*, 'More true than agreeable.' Also *magis* was used (like *more* in English) with two positives.

* In Anglo-Saxon the suffix was *-er* or *-or*; in declension dropping the vowel, and inflected according to the weak declension. The letter *r* is the softened form of a sibilant. In Gothic the suffix is *-iza*. With this we may compare the Latin comparative suffix *-ior* (*Key Lat. Gr.* § 241), the *s* of which is softened to *r* in declension. It is an ancient Aryan suffix. (*Sansc. tyas*). Another Aryan comparative suffix, *-tar* or *-ter*, which we get in the Greek *-τερος*, appears also in Latin and English, to indicate that one thing is viewed in its relation to some other, as *alter* 'one of two'; *uter* 'which of two'; *neuter*; *other*, *either*, *neither*, *whether*.

† When *-er* and *-es* are added to adjectives ending in *y*, the *y* is changed, or left unaltered, in the same way as when the plural *-es* is added. (See § 49).

- 110 The Superlative Degree of an adjective is that form of it which shows that a certain thing, or set of things, possesses some quality or attribute *in a greater degree than any other of the class to which it belongs*. It is formed by adding *est* or *est** to the simple adjective, or the adjective in the positive degree; as, *greatest, tallest, largest*. Thus, of several boys in a group, we may say, "John is *the tallest*." Of the countries of Europe we may say, "England is *the wealthiest*."
- 111 If we say "John is *taller* than all the other boys in the class," we express the same relation as to height between John and the rest as if we say, "John is *the tallest* boy in the class." But in the former case, John is considered *apart from* the other boys of the class, so that the *two* objects which we have in mind are *John* and *the other boys in the class*. When the superlative degree is used, John is considered as *one of the group* of boys compared with each other.
- 112 When two things only are compared, it is usual and proper to employ the comparative degree, even when the things form one group, as such a group only admits of the comparison of *one* thing with *one* other; as, "This line is *the longer* of the two." Nevertheless, from what has been said in the last paragraph, it appears that it would not be very inaccurate to say "*the longest* of the two." Such expressions are frequently employed by good writers.
- 113 Many adjectives, from the nature of the ideas which they express, cannot have comparative and superlative degrees; as, *right, left, wrong, square, triangular*, together with most of the quantitative adjectives, and all the demonstrative adjectives. Sometimes, however, adjectives are used in a sense which falls short of their strict meaning, and then they admit of degrees of comparison which would not otherwise be tolerable. For example, *extreme, perfect, chief*. As when we say, "This specimen is *more perfect* than that;" "He died in the *extremest* misery;" "The *chiefest* among ten thousand."
- 114 In the case of some adjectives, the degrees of comparison are marked by what are commonly termed *irregular* forms. These are the following:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Good	better †	best
Little ‡	less	least

* In Anglo-Saxon the termination was *-est* or *-ost*. In early English writers (as in Robert of Gloucester) we still find comparatives and superlatives in *-or* and *-ost*.

† In Anglo-Saxon *bet* is a comparative adverb, the comparative suffix being thrown off, as it was also in *leng* (longer), *ma* (more), *elþ* (more easily), *ær* (sooner). *Best* is a shortened form of *betist* or *betest*, like *last* from *lastest*.

‡ *Little* (A.S. *lytel*) is a derivative from the simpler form *lyt*. *Less* and *least* are not connected with this root, but are derived by Koch from a root *las*. From this root would be formed the comparative *lasser* or (with *s* softened to *r*) *læssa*, and the

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Much*	more	most
Many	more	most
Bad	worse†	worst
Late	later or latter	latest or last‡
[Nigh]	nigher	nighest or next§
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest
Far	farther	farthest¶
[Forth]	further	furthest.

- 115 Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most adjectives of two syllables, do not allow of the formation of comparative and superlative degrees by means of suffixes. But the same ideas are denoted by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the simple adjective, or adjective in the positive degree. Thus we say, *Virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; Learned, more learned, most learned*. The dissyllabic adjectives which do admit of suffixes of comparison are those ending in *-y* (*merry, merrier, merriest; holy, holier, holiest*); in *-er* (as *tender, tenderer, tenderest*); those in *-ble*

superlative *lestest*. If this be so, it is possible that *lesser* is not a double comparative (as is usually supposed), but simply the modern form of *laesra*; *less* being an abbreviated form of *laessa*, and *least* of *laesest*. *Lesser* is only used as an adjective in the sense of *smaller*. *Less* was also used thus by the older writers; as, "How to name the bigger light, and how the less" (*Shaksp., Temp.*). *Shakspere* (*Hamlet*, iii. 2) has the form *littlest*.

* *Much* is the modern form of the Anglo-Saxon *micel* 'great' (compare *micar* and *mag-nus*) softened into *michel* or *muchel*. *More* and *most* (A.S. *marra, mæst*) are from an old Aryan root *mah*. In old English they had the sense of *greater* and *greatest*; but the sense of *magnus* was gradually superseded by that of *multus*. In old English *mce* (A.S. *ma*) is found for *more* when referring to *number*.

† *Worse* (from A.S. *weor* 'bad') has the original *s* of the comparative suffix. (See note on § 106). The comparative *badder* is found in Chaucer. *Shakspere* uses the double comparative *worsen*. *Worse* and *worst* are used as the comparative and superlative of *bad, evil, and ill*.

‡ *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* refer (though not exclusively) to position in a series.

§ In Chaucer we find *next* for *highest*. The modern positive *near* is in reality the comparative of the A.S. *neah* = *nigh*, which was both an adjective and an adverb. The three degrees should properly be *nigh, near, next* (*Mittner*, i. p. 294). The comparative *near* is found more than once in *Shakspere* (*Abbot*, *Sh. Gr.* § 478), as "The *near* in blood, the nearer bloody" (*Macbeth*).

|| There is an antiquated positive form *eld*, but *elder* and *eldest* are formed from old (A.S. *æld*), being the modern forms of *yltra* and *yldest*. We find this modification of the vowel in other cases, as *lang* 'long', *lengra, lengest*; *geong* 'young', *gyngra, gyngest*. *Older* is an ordinary adjective of the comparative degree. *Elder*, though originally a simple comparative, has now lost that force, and is used to denote not so much greater age, as the relation of precedence which is a consequence of being *older*. *Elder* cannot now be followed by *than*.

¶ These forms are now established in the language, but they are formed upon a false analogy. From the adverb *forth* are derived *further* and *furthest*. But there being no adjective in the positive degree except *far, further* and *furthest* were corrupted into *farther* and *farthest*, and set down as derivatives from *far*. In Anglo-Saxon the comp. and sup. of *far* (*feorr*) were *fyrre* and *feorrest*. *Shakspere* uses *far* = *fyrre* as a comparative. (*W. T.* iv. 4, 442.)

(as *able*, *abler*, *ablest*); those which have the accent on the last syllable, as *polite*, *politer*, *politest*; *severe*, *severer*, *severest*; and some others, as *pleasanter*,* *pleasantest*; *narrower*, *narrowest*.

- 116 Combinations like *more learned*, *most virtuous*, may be called 'Degrees of Comparison' on the same principle as that on which 'I shall go' is called the 'Future Tense' of the verb *go*. The older writers use *more* and *most* with monosyllabic adjectives, as 'more strong' (*Shaksp.*); 'more sad' (*Pope*). This periphrastic mode of comparison is of Norman-French origin.
- 117 In Anglo-Saxon there were two superlative suffixes, *-ost* or *-est* and *-ema* (compare the Greek *-ιστος* in *μέγιστος*, and the Latin *-imus* in *simill-imus*, *intimus*, &c.). There are a few superlatives in English ending in *-most*: *hindmost*, *topmost*, *inmost*, *foremost*, *uttermost*.† Most of these are derived, not from adjectives in the positive degree, but from adverbs. They are not compounds of the adverb *most*, but double superlatives,‡ formed by the use of both terminations *-ema* and *-ost*. *Former* appears to be a comparative formed from the A.S. superlative *forma*.
- 118 Double comparatives and superlatives are common in the older writers, as "more kinder," "more braver," "the most unkindest out of all" (*Shaksp.*); "the most straitest sect," &c.
- 119 Some comparatives have become positive in meaning, as *near* (see § 114); *utter* or *outer* the comparative of *út* = *out*; *inner* of *in*; *after* of *aft*; *neither* of *neath* (A.S. *niðe*). Superlatives are sometimes formed from comparatives, as *erst* from *ere* (A.S. *ær*). In old English we find *upperest*, *overest*, *utterest*, *hinderest*. (*Mätzner*).

ARTICLE.

- 120 The Articles§ are often classed as a separate part of speech, but they belong in reality to the class of Adjectives. There are two Articles, the Indefinite Article *an* or *a*, and the Definite Article *the*.

* Euphony is the guide in this matter. The suffixes *er* and *est* were more freely employed by the earlier writers. Thus e.g. we find *unhopefullest* in *Shakspere*, *honourablest* in *Bacon*, *virtuosest* in *Fuller*, &c. Several modern writers affect these old formations. In poetical diction comparatives and superlatives in *er* and *est* are allowed which are not usual in ordinary prose, such as *divinest*, *perfectest*, *properest*.

† The *r* in *uttermost*, *innermost*, &c., is merely phonetic, not formative. In Anglo-Saxon we find *hindemest*, *aftemost*, *innemest*, *formest*, &c.

‡ It is likely enough, however, that some of these words (as *hithermost*, *middlemost*, *undermost*, *topmost*) were really formed under the false conception that *most* was the superlative adverb. We even find the comparative *more* in the double comparative *furthermore*.

§ Latin *articulus*, 'a joint'; a word used rather vaguely by the Latin grammarians.

- 121 The Indefinite Article *an* is a quantitative adjective. It is only another form of the numeral *one* (A.S. *æn*; * Scotch *ane*). When placed before a noun it indicates that we are speaking of *some one* of the things for each of which the noun is a name, as, 'A dog bit me;' 'I saw *an* old man.'
- 122 The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound or mute *h*, as *an apple*, *an heir*.
An drops the *n*† and becomes *a* before words beginning with a consonant, the aspirate *h*, or the letter *u* when the sound of *y* is put before the *u* in pronunciation, as *A man*, *a horse*, *a yellow ball*, *a useful book*. But *an* is kept before the aspirate when the accent is not upon the first syllable of the word, as "an historical event."
- 123 In some expressions what is now commonly regarded as the indefinite article *a* was originally a weakened form of the preposition *on* (= in). Thus "Twice a week" was "tuwa on wucan" (Luke xviii. 12. See Koch, ii. p. 85; Morris, *Hist. Outl.*‡)
- 124 The definite article *the* is a Demonstrative Adjective. It is used before a noun, to define or mark the particular individual or individuals that we are speaking of out of the class named by the noun.
- 125 The definite article is used in English before significant nouns.
 (A) It is used to mark out or individualise out of all the objects of thought that might be denoted by the significant name, that one to which attention is directed. It does this, *first*, by directing attention to some attributive adjunct by which the individual is distinguished from the rest of the class of which it is a member. Thus, when we say, *the black horse*, *the* points attention to the adjective *black*, by which the horse in question is distinguished from others of the group to which it belongs. When we say, *the Queen of England*, *the* points to the distinguishing adjunct of *England*. In *the man who stole my purse*, *the* points to the distinguishing adjective clause *who stole*, &c. The omission of the common name which is restricted by the adjective or attributive adjunct leads to such combinations as *the Thames* § (for *the river Thames*); *the Atlantic* (for

* *An* was sometimes employed in Anglo-Saxon as the indefinite article. Thus e.g. "Job ascreop þone wyrms of his lice mid ænum crocsoearde" (Job scraped the corruption off his body with a potsherd. *Aelf. Hom.*). Its regular use in this manner was not established till after the Norman Conquest.

† In old English the form *a* or *o* is found for *an* (as *ae* in Scotch for *ane*) even when used as a numeral. We still say 'A day or two'; 'They are both of a size,' i.e., of one size. *None* (made up of *ne* and *dn*) is commonly shortened to *no*.

‡ It is pretty clear, however, that after the use of the indefinite article had become general, people thought that in saying 'twice a year,' they were using the indefinite article, or they would not also have used such expressions as 'A shilling a pound,' where *a* = *on* or *in* would be without meaning. When the article came to be employed in *a* was used, as 'sevene sithis (times) in a day' (*Matt.* xvii. 4), &c. Phrases like *on* or *in* a year might easily have been abbreviated by the omission of the preposition, just as we say, 'the cloth is a shilling *the* yard,' instead of 'for the yard.'

§ In Anglo-Saxon we find *Thames*, *Jordan*, &c. without the article.

the Atlantic ocean); *the Victory* (for *the ship Victory*). Secondly, by indicating that out of all the possible objects to which the significant name might be applied, we are speaking of that particular one with which we have some obvious connexion or concern, as when we say, *the sun, the moon, the Queen, the City, the street, the door, the army, the Church, &c.*

(b) The word *the* is used before significant nouns in the singular to show that one individual is taken as the representative of its class, as when we talk of *the lion, the eagle*, or when the name does not admit of more than one application in the sense in which it is used, as *the universe, the Deity, the ocean*.

(c) *The* is used before nouns in the plural to show that we are speaking of the whole of the class to which the name belongs, as when we speak of *the stars, the English, the good, the Alps*.

There is a corresponding use of *the* before an adjective when the two together form (not, as some say, an *abstract*, but) a *universal concrete name*, as *the sublime, the ridiculous*.

- 126 The definite article *the* is a weakened form of the old demonstrative *se, seo, that*, which in Anglo-Saxon, besides its ordinary force, had the weaker force of the article, though it was often omitted in cases where we now use *the*. In the later stage of Anglo-Saxon *se* and *seo* were supplanted by the collateral forms *þe (the)* and *þeo (theo)*. Side by side with the inflected demonstrative there was an uninflected form *the*, but in early English writers (*Robert of Gloucester, Old English Hom.*) traces of the inflected article, such as Gen. *thas*, Dat. *tham*, Acc. *then*, are still found; also (especially in the Northern dialect) *that* was used as an article for all genders* (*Koch and Müllner*); but ere long only the uninflected *the* was used for the article, and the inflected forms were used as demonstrative pronouns.

- 127 When a noun preceded by an article is qualified by an adjective, the adjective is generally placed between the article and the noun. But in the case of the adjective *such*, or an adjective qualified by the adverbs *so* and *too*, the indefinite article comes after the adjective, as "Such an event;" "So great a misfortune." The same is the case with the definite article and the adjective *all*, as "All the day."

PRONOUN.

- 128 A pronoun† is a word used instead of a noun, as when we say, "John has come in: *he* is very tired," instead of "John has come in: John is very tired."

* In early English are found the curious forms *the tone* and *the tother*. Müllner considers these to have sprung out of the use of *that* or *thet* as an article, *that one* and *thet other*,—forms which are actually found not infrequently.

† Latin *pronomen*; *pro* for, and *nomen* noun.

Pronouns are divided into two classes, Substantive Pronouns and Adjective Pronouns.

- 129 Strictly speaking, no word should be called a Pronoun unless it is a substantive. But it is usual to include under this head certain demonstrative adjectives which are very often used substantively. These bear the somewhat contradictory name of *Adjective Pronouns*. When they are attached to substantives which are expressed, as *this man, each time*, they should be called Demonstrative Adjectives.

Table of the Pronouns.

	SUBSTANTIVE.	ADJECTIVE.
130	I. <i>Personal</i> { I, thou, we, you or ye.	
	II. <i>Demonstrative</i> { he, she, it, they.	this, these; that, those.
	III. <i>Relative</i> —that.	
	IV. <i>Interrogative</i> and <i>Relative</i> } who ..	which, what, whether.
	V. <i>Indefinite</i> { one, aught, naught ..	any, other, some.
	VI. <i>Distributive</i>	each, every, either, neither.
	VII. <i>Reflective</i>	self.
	VIII. <i>Possessive</i>	{ mine and my, thine and thy, his, her, and hers, its, our and ours, your and yours, their and theirs.

I.—Personal Pronouns.

- 131 Personal Pronouns are of two kinds. 1. Those of the First Person. 2. Those of the Second Person.
- 132 The Pronoun which is used when a person speaks of himself singly, or of himself in conjunction with one or more others, without mentioning any names, is called the Personal Pronoun of the First Person. It is declinable, and has the following forms:—

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative Case</i>	I	We
[<i>Possessive Case</i>]	[Mine or My]	[Our]
<i>Objective Case</i>	Me	Us

The Nominative Case *I* is always written with a Capital letter.

- 133 The Pronoun which is used when we speak of the person or persons spoken to, is called the Personal Pronoun of the Second Person. It is declinable, and has the following forms:—

	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative Case .	Thou	Ye or You
[Possessive Case] .	[Thine or Thy]	[Your]
Objective Case .	These	You or Ye*

- 134 In Anglo-Saxon only the singular forms of this pronoun were used in addressing a single person. In Shakspeare's time the singular was also used as the pronoun of affection towards children + or friends, of good-natured superiority to servants, and of contempt or anger to strangers. † (*Abbott, Sh. Gr.* p. 153). At a very early period ‡ the plural came to be used in speaking to a single person. It was at first employed as a mark of special respect (as when a subject speaks to a king, or a son to his father), as though the person addressed were as good as two or more ordinary people. ¶ In course of time the nominative *ye* (as thus employed) was superseded by *you*, and became exclusively plural in sense. It is now employed only in elevated or poetic style. *You* and *your* are now the ordinary pronouns of address, whether we are speaking to one person, or to more than one.
- 135 The Personal Pronouns have, properly speaking, no Possessive Case, that is to say, no Possessive Case with the force of a *substantive*. In Anglo-Saxon, when the genitives ¶ of these pronouns were used in the *possessive* sense, they were regarded as adjectives and inflected accordingly. As the possessive sense is the only one in which we have retained these forms, and as, when used in this sense, these forms were always regarded as adjectives, they should be regarded as such now; that is, *mine* and *my* are the equivalents not of *mei* but of *meus*, *thine* and *thy* of *tuus*, &c.
- 136 The plural forms of the pronouns of the first and second persons are not etymologically derived from the singular forms. In fact, the notion involved (for example) in *we* is not related to that expressed by *I* in the same way that the idea expressed by *men* is related to that expressed by *man*. *We* does not imply a simple repetition of *I*. The notion involved in the word *I* does not admit of plurality.**

* Several grammarians maintain that *ye* is exclusively *nominative*. It was so once, but the best writers in the language use *ye* as an objective case. As, "His wrath, which one day will destroy *ye* both" (*Milton*). "The more shame for *ye*, holy men I thought *ye*" (*Shakspeare*). It is true, however, that *ye* is derived from the Anglo-Saxon nominative *ge*, and *you* from the accusative or dative *eow*. In the English Bible *ye* is nominative and *you* objective.

+ In Shakspeare fathers almost always address their sons with *thou*, sons their fathers with *you* (*Abbott*).

† "If thou *thou'st* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss" (*Twelfth N.* iii. 2). "Prithee don't thee and thou me; I believe I am as good a man as yourself" (*Miller of Mansfield*).

‡ See Robert of Gloucester, &c.

¶ The use of the first person plural by royal personages may be accounted for in a similar manner.

¶ In Anglo-Saxon these genitives were also used as substantives, and were governed by verbs, &c., or used in the partitive sense, as e.g. *gemun þu mīn*, 'remember thou me' (*memineris mei*). The substantive use of *mīn* and *þīn* did not last beyond the Anglo-Saxon stage of our language. The substantive use of *our* (*ure*) and *your* (*eower*) lasted till a later period. The abbreviated forms *my* and *thy* were not employed till the substantive use of *mīn* and *þīn* had disappeared.

** It appears in fact that the earliest known form of the plural *we* (in Sanscrit) was equivalent to *I* and *these*, and that of *ye* to *thou* and *these* (*Koch*, i. p. 468).

- 137 The pronouns of the first and second persons do not mark distinctions of gender, because when a person speaks of himself or to another person, the sex, being evident, does not need to be marked in language by differences of gender, and the plural forms must of necessity be ambiguous, as *we* and *you* may include persons of different sexes.

II.—Demonstrative Pronouns.

- 138 The pronoun which is used when a person speaks of one or more other persons or things, without describing them by a noun, is often called the Personal Pronoun of the Third Person. It is, however, more correct to call it the Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person. It admits of the distinctions of number, case, and gender. It has the following forms:—

	SINGULAR.		
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Nominative Case . . .	He	She	It
Possessive Case . . .	His	Her	It's
Objective Case . . .	Him*	Her	It
PLURAL.			
Nominative Case . . .	} For all genders.		
Possessive Case . . .			
Objective Case . . .			

- 139 The plural forms must be ambiguous as to gender, because they may be used when speaking of persons of different sexes, or of persons and things together. For the old forms of this pronoun see Appendix A.
- 140 *She* (*sche* or *echo*) was probably a collateral form of *heo* from very early times. It is connected with the feminine demonstrative *seo*.† *It* was in Anglo-Saxon *hit*. The *i* is a neuter suffix, like *d* in the Latin *i-d*, *quo-d*, &c. The regular genitive or possessive case of *hit* was *his*, as: "If the salt have lost *his* savour," &c. The possessive case *its* is of comparatively modern origin. It is found in Shakespeare, but even there *his* is more common. There is only one example of it in the English Bible‡ (*Lev. xxv. 5*).
- 141 The modern plural forms of this pronoun are borrowed from the demonstrative *es*, *eo*, *pat*. (App. A). The genitive plural *her*, *hir* or *hire*, and the dative plural *him* or *hem* were in use for some

* *Him* was originally a dative case. It will be seen that the datives *him*, *her* and *them*, like *me*, *thee*, *us* and *you*, have supplanted the accusative forms (See § 83, note).

† The characteristic *s* appears in Gothic (*si*) and Old Saxon (*siu*), as well as in modern German (*sie*). *Ho* or *hoo* is still heard for *she* in Lancashire and Craven.

‡ Some old writers have an uninflected possessive *it* (for *his* or *its*); as "Go to *it* grandam, child, and *it* grandam will give it a plum" (*Shaksp.*, *K. J. II. 1*). See Koch, ii. p. 233.

time after *thai*, *thei*, or *they* was adopted for the nominative. They are found in Chaucer.*

- 142 The genitive cases of this pronoun were not declined as adjectives in Anglo-Saxon.† *Their* retained a substantive force after the other possessives had become pronominal adjectives. Traces of their substantive force still exist in their use as antecedents to relatives; as, "whose hatred is covered by deceit, *his* wickedness shall be shewed before the whole congregation." "*Their* sorrows shall be multiplied that hasten after another God." They may now, however, be classed with the other possessives.

The Demonstrative Adjectives THIS and THAT.

- 143 *This* has a plural, viz., *these*. *That* has a plural, viz., *those*.‡ *This* refers to what is near the speaker (*near me*) in position; *that* refers to what is at a distance from the speaker. As "*This* apple is ripe, *that* is not." In this sense *this* and *that* are called *real* demonstratives, or words that point to *things* (Latin *res*).

- 144 *This* and *that* are also used to point, not to things themselves, but to some description of what we are speaking about, as, "The general was in command of a large force. *This* force consisted of infantry and artillery." "They remained one day at Rome. *That* day passed without any remarkable event." When thus used, *this* and *that* are called *logical* demonstratives. They often refer to *whole sentences* or to the *general idea* conveyed by a preceding phrase, as, "I know that he is innocent, and *this* is my chief consolation"; "Lend me a shilling, *that's* a good fellow." Here *that* = 'a person who will lend a shilling.'

When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, *this* refers to what has been mentioned last, *that* refers to what was mentioned before it; as "Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice: *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness." *This* is also used to refer to something which is going to be mentioned, as, "*This* is my hope and prayer, that my children may grow up in the fear of the Lord."

* The colloquial abbreviation *a* for the pronoun of the third person occurs in old writers. "A brushes his hat o' mornings. . . . A rubs himself with civet" (*Shaksp.*, *Much Ado*, iii. 2). It is still a provincial idiom (See Tennyson's *Northern Farmer*.) It is even used as a plural (*Koch*, i. 469).

† Traces of declension, however, appear at a somewhat later period (See *Koch*, ii. p. 234).

‡ Etymologically, however, *those* is not the plural of *that* (A.S. *þæt*). *These* and *those* are only various forms of *þas*, the plural of *þes* or *þis* (See Appendix A, 1, 2). In Middle English *that* had a plural *tho*, a variety of *þd*. *Koch* is probably in error when (ii. p. 242) he derives the plural *those* from *tho* by the addition of the plural suffix *s*. *This* was used as a plural even up to the sixteenth century. The proper plural of *that* was transferred to *it* or *his*.

- 145 *This* and *that* (in the singular) are not used substantively to stand for persons, except as subjects of the verb *be* when the latter is followed by a noun as the predicate; as, "This is my brother;" "that is John." We cannot say, "This did the deed," meaning "this man;" or, "That shall be punished," meaning "that person." This restriction does not apply to the plural: "*These* are not drunken, as ye suppose;" "Upon *those* did Solomon levy a tribute." But this use of the plural is now almost obsolete.
- 146 *That* is properly the neuter of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative pronoun (App. A), *t* being a neuter suffix (§ 140). Like *hit*, *that* was used substantively in Anglo-Saxon as a general demonstrative without regard to gender or number, as "is þæt min broðer"; "þæt were Brut and hys" (*Rob. Gl.*). Ultimately it superseded the masculine and feminine. *This* is in like manner the neuter of the Anglo-Saxon *þes*, *þeos*, *þis* (App. A). Like *that* it was used substantively without regard to number or gender, as "þis sindon þā dōmas" (*this* are the decrees). Like *that*, *this* superseded the masculine and feminine forms.
- 147 The adverbs *there* and *here*, combined with another adverb (see § 271), form compounds which are often substituted for *that* and *this* preceded by prepositions; thus *therein*=in *that*; *hereby*=by *this*. The usage is getting antiquated; but *therefor* (*therefore*) is in common use.
- 147b The demonstrative adjective *yonder* or *yon* is sometimes classed among the pronouns, though it is now never used in place of a noun. The root *yon* is the same as in the German *jener*. In Anglo-Saxon *geond* was an adverb. *Yonder* is also an adverb in English.

III.—The Relative Pronoun THAT.

- 148 A Relative* Pronoun is a word which refers to some noun or pronoun which has been already used to mark the person or thing spoken about, and which is called the *antecedent* of the relative. Thus, in the sentence, "He is reading about the battle that was fought at Hastings," *that* refers to the noun *battle*, and *battle* is called the antecedent to the relative *that*.

The pronouns *who* and *which* are also used as relatives. In "I have found the sheep *which* I had lost," the pronoun *which* refers to *sheep*, and *sheep* is the antecedent to the relative *which*. In "This is the man *whose* house we saw," *whose* refers to *man*, and *man* is the antecedent to *whose*. The antecedent noun is often replaced by a pronoun, as:

* *Relative* is a bad term, because it is insufficient. *He, she, it, this, that, they* are also (literally) *relative* pronouns, because they refer to some preceding substantive or antecedent. The relative pronoun, however, differs from the definite article and the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* by having at the same time a *grammatically connective* force, and attaching subordinate adjective clauses to some word in the principal sentence.

"He to-day that sheds his blood with me, shall be my brother."

- 149 The relative pronoun *that* is the oldest* relative pronoun that we have in English. It is always used as a substantive, and may be used either of persons or of things. It is never placed *after* prepositions, and is governed by a preposition only when the preposition is placed at the end of the clause.† It has no variations in form to mark number, gender, or case. *Examples*: "The horse *that* I rode, fell." "This is the man *that* I spoke of."
- 150 *That* was originally the neuter of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative ‡ pronoun, *se, seo, þæt*, which was also used as a relative, just as *der, die, das*, still is in German. As in the case of the demonstrative *that*, the neuter superseded the masculine and feminine. This pronoun and the indeclinable *þe* were used as relatives before *who* was so used.§ In old-fashioned English *that* (like *what*) was used with its antecedent understood; as "We speak *that* we do know, and testify *that* we have seen" (*John* iii. 11); "That thou doest, do quickly" (*John* xiii. 27); "I am *that* I am."
- 151 *That* cannot be used in all cases where *who* can be used. It can now be used only when the relative clause is required to give to the antecedent its full signification. We cannot use *that* when the antecedent is a proper name, or when the antecedent noun has with it a demonstrative adjective which sufficiently defines the thing or person spoken of. We cannot say, "Thomas *that* died yester-

* Addison is quite wrong when in his "Humble Petition of *who* and *which*" he makes the petitioners say: "We are descended of ancient families, and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the Jack Sprat *that* supplanted us."

† In such cases we should perhaps regard the preposition as an adverb forming a compound with the verb. Formerly the preposition (or adverb) was placed *before* the verb, as though we should say "the land which they in-lived"; "the settlement which they from were driven" (*Koch*, ii. p. 280). This idiom was first adopted for the uninflected *the* and *that*, and afterwards extended to the other relatives.

‡ The use of a relative pronoun marks an advanced stage of the language. Originally the principal clause and the accessory relative clause were co-ordinate, as: "Se hæfð brýð, se is brýðguma" = "He has the bride, he is the bridegroom." The preponderating importance of the definitive clause was easily marked in speaking by emphasis. This emphasis at length received its grammatical expression by doubling the demonstrative, which was repeated in its indeclinable form *þe*, repetition of the inflection being needless. Hence arose the ordinary Anglo-Saxon form: "Se þe brýð hæfð, se is brýðguma" = "Who has the bride he is the bridegroom." As the relative force was given to the demonstrative by appending the indeclinable *þe*, the latter came to be regarded as specially containing the relative idea. Hence it came to be used sometimes by itself without the inflected demonstrative, as *vice versa* the inflected demonstrative was often used as a relative without the appended *þe*, the accessory nature of the clause being commonly evident either from its meaning or from its position. The uninflected *that* was used as a relative by Orm and Layamon in the twelfth century (*Koch*, ii. p. 255). The indeclinable *þe* could even give a relative force to the personal pronouns, as "Fæder ure, þu þe eart or heofenum" (Our Father *which* (= *thou that*) art in heaven); "Ic eom Gabrahel, ic þe stande beforan Gode" (I am Gabriel *who* stand before God). Compare *du, der du*; and *ich, der ich*, &c. in German.

§ Before *who* came into use as a relative pronoun, the relative adverbs were *then, there, thither* (*þonne, þær, þyder*) instead of *when, where, whither*.

day, was my brother;" or "I have heard from my father, *that* is in America." The words *Thomas* and *my Father* explain perfectly by themselves who is meant. In other words, a clause beginning with *that* limits or defines the noun to which it refers, and is therefore improper when that noun does not admit of further limitation. This rule, however, holds good only in modern English. In the older writers *that* is used after proper names, or nouns limited by a definitive word. *That* never has the *continuative* force of *who* and *which* (See § 413), and is never used (like *which*) to refer to the general sense of an entire sentence.

IV.—The Interrogative and Relative Pronouns WHO, WHAT, WHICH, WHETHER.

- 152 The pronoun *who*, neuter *what* (A.S. *hwa*, neuter *hwæt*) was in Anglo-Saxon an Interrogative pronoun, and was used only substantively* (For the declension of *hwa*, see App. A). It had no feminine or plural. It is thus declined in modern English:—

Nominative Case	Who
Possessive Case	Whose
Objective Case	Whom.

Even good writers often carelessly use *who* as the objective case, as "saw *who*?" (*Hamlet*, I.); "Yield thee, thief! To *who*? to thee?" (*Cymb.* iv. 2). This should be regarded as an error.

Whom is properly a dative, which, like *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, and *them* has supplanted the accusative.

- 153 *What* has the neuter suffix *t*. It is the neuter of *who*. It is now indeclinable, and is used not only as a substantive, but also as an adjective.† When used as a substantive it is neuter, like *that*.
- 154 *Which* (A.S. *hwylc* or *hwilc*), is a compound of *hwæt* or *hwof* (the old instrumental case of *hwa*), and *líc* (*like*). In Scotch it is still *quhilk*. It is equivalent to the Latin *qualis*, 'of what sort?' and corresponds to the German *welcher*. It is properly an adjective, as "Which dress do you prefer?" but is also used substantively, as "Here are port and

* The word has the same root as the dialectic Greek interrogative *kor* and the Latin *quis*. The *hw* is a softened form of a guttural. In *what*, *when*, &c. we still pronounce the *h* before the *w*.

† Like the neuters *this* and *that* it was used in Anglo-Saxon as a substantive without regard to gender and number, as "Hwæt syndon ge?" (*what are ye?*). It was often followed by the genitive case, as "hwæt godes?" (*what of good?*); "hwæt weoroes?" (*what of work?*). When the genitive suffix came to be dropped, except when it denoted possession, these combinations gave rise to an apparently adjective use of *what*, which was subsequently admitted before masculine and feminine as well as before neuter nouns. *What* is used adjectively with an intensive force, in exclamations, as "What a fool he was!"; "What knaves they are." In old English *which* was similarly used, as 'which a great honour it is' (*Chaucer*).

- sherry, which will you take?" *Which* asks for one out of a definite number; *who* and *what* ask indefinitely.
- 155 Whether (A.S. *hwæðer*) is derived from *who* (*hwa*) by means of the comparative suffix *ther** (§ 106, note), and means 'which of the two?' As a pronoun it is now nearly obsolete. It was usually a substantive, as "Whether of them twain did the will of his father?" but was sometimes used adjectively, as "While thus the case in doubtful balance hung, unsure to whether side it would incline" (*Spenser*).
- 156 As *who*, *what*, and *which* (*hwa*, *hwæt*, *hwylc*) were used as *indefinite interrogatives*, by a natural transition they came to be used as *indefinite pronouns*, standing for some unknown or undetermined person or thing,† in the sense of *some one* or *any one*, *something* or *anything*, especially (though not always) after *if* (*gif*). This use of *who* is still found in Shakspeare, "as *who* should say" (*Macb.* iii. 6) = "as one might say."
- 157 *What* is still commonly used thus in such phrases as "I'll tell you *what*," where *what* = *something*. The strengthened form *some-what* is still more common. In the sense of *in some degree* or *partly*, *what* is used conjunctively, as, "What with the war, what with the sweat, what with the gallows, and what with poverty, I am custom-shrunk." (*Shaksp.*, *M. for M.* ii. 1.) The interrogative adverbs *how*, *where*, *when*, *whether*, &c. had in like manner an *indefinite* sense. We still say *somehow*, *somewhere*, *somewhither*, &c.
- 158 A further step of great importance was made when the interrogative or indefinite pronouns *who*, *what*, *which* came to be used as *Indefinite Relative Pronouns*. This was effected by attaching to them the adverb *so*,‡ as

* *Uter* (once *quater* or *cuter*, from *qui*) is precisely analogous to *whether*, from *who*, as is *neuter* from the interrogative and relative root *no*.

† That is to say, in order to indicate a person or thing as yet unknown or undetermined, a word was employed that asked *who* or *what* it was. *Quis* was used in Latin in precisely the same way after *si*, *num*, *quum*, &c. Compare also the Greek *τίς*. This use of the interrogative was quite common in Anglo-Saxon, as "gif *hwa* eow enig pingc tō cwyð" (*Matt.* xxi. 8). "If any one say anything to you;" "Gif eow *hwylc* segð" (*Mark* xiii. 21), "If any man say to you."

‡ In Anglo-Saxon the demonstrative adverb *swa* (*so*) was treated like the demonstrative pronoun. (See note on § 150.) In order to give it a *relative* force it was doubled. Thus *swa* came to be regarded (like *pe*) as having in itself the power of attaching a relative sense to other words. It was placed both before and after the interrogative (or indefinite) pronouns, to give them the force of indefinite relatives; *swa hwa swa* (*so who so = who-so*); *swa hwæt swa* (*so what so = what-so[ever]*) &c. The words that and *as* (*als = also = all so*) were also employed to give relativity to the pronouns and adverbs beginning with *wh*, as "The highe God, on *whom* that we believe;" "Caton, *which* that was so wise" (*Chaucer*); "When that the poor have cried, Caesar hath wept" (*Shaksp.*); "When as sacred light began to dawn," (*Mil-jon*, *P. L.* ix. 192). *Whereas* still keeps its ground. In the Ormulum we find *some* (*summa*) used for the same purpose (*whasum = who-so*; *whatsum = what-so[ever]*). This idiom is preserved in the now vulgar forms *whatsoever*, *howsoever*, &c. (sometimes pronounced *whatsomever*, &c.).

whoso. Thus, "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed" (*Gen.* ix. 6). These forms are commonly strengthened by the addition of *ever*, and the *so* is sometimes omitted. *Whoso* and *whoever* are not now declined. *Whosoever* is declined:—

Nominative Case . . .	Whosoever
Possessive Case . . .	Whosoever
Objective Case . . .	Whomsoever.

Whatever, *whatsoever*, and *whichever* or *whichsoever*, are used both substantively and adjectively, as "*Whatever* (subst.) he undertook, prospered"; "*Whatsoever* (adj.) things are true, *whatsoever* things are pure," &c. (*Phil.* iv. 8). The antecedent of these indefinite relatives is usually omitted.

- 159 Lastly, the indefinite relatives *whoso*, &c., dropped the *so*, which was the sign of *relativity*, and *who*, *what*, and *which* became ordinary relative pronouns.*

- 160 The pronoun *who* is used only when *persons* are spoken of. It does not mark the distinction of number, person, and gender. For its declension see § 152.

What was originally the neuter of *who*, and, as a substantive, refers only to *things*. It is also used adjectively, as "I gave him what help I could;" "What time I am afraid, I will trust in thee." The possessive case of it (*whose* = *hwæc* or *whas*), is still in use, though rarely employed except in poetry: as "The question *whose* solution I require" (*Dryden*); "I could a tale unfold, *whose* lightest word," &c. (*Shakspeare*); "The roof, *whose* thickness was not vengeance proof" (*Byron*). The dative has disappeared. In the nominative and objective cases, *what* is never preceded by an antecedent,† but may be followed by *that*, as "*What* he hath won, *that* hath he fortified" (*Shak., K. J.*, iii. 4). Usually, however, the antecedent is not expressed.

- 1606 It is, however, an utter mistake to treat *what* as though it were made up of, or were equivalent to, *that which*. It is simply a rela-

* *Who* (*wha*), as a relative, is first found in the Ormulum. *What* had been used as a relative somewhat earlier. "*That* came into use during the twelfth century to supply the place of the indeclinable relative *the*, and in the fourteenth century it is the ordinary relative. In the sixteenth century *which* often supplies its place; in the seventeenth century *who* replaces it. About Addison's time *that* had again come into fashion, and had almost driven *which* and *who* out of use" (*Morris*). Steele ridicules the too common use of *that* in the sentence: "My lords, with humble submission, *that* that I say is this; *that* that that gentleman has advanced is not *that* that he should have proved to your lordships" (*Spect.* 80). *Whether*, as a relative, is obsolete, but is found in Chaucer.

† *That* is, not now. In the older writers *all what*, *nothing what*, *that what*, &c., are common.

tive with its antecedent *understood*, just as when we say, "Who steals my purse steals trash." It is like the German *was*, before which the antecedent *das* is commonly omitted, though it may be expressed. An adjective clause introduced by the relative *what* is therefore an adjective clause, *used substantively*. In the sentence, "I do not believe what has been said," *what* is in no sense the object of *believe*; it is the subject of *has been said*.

- 161 As *what* is no longer used as a relative when the antecedent is expressed, its place is supplied by the pronoun *which*. It is wrong, however, to call *which* the neuter of *who* (see § 154). It is an adjective pronoun, and not necessarily neuter. In old-fashioned English it is found instead of *who*, as "Our Father *which* art in heaven." At present, however, it is never used substantively as a relative, except with reference to animals and things. In such sentences as "The doctrine of the Nicolaitans, *which thing* I hate;" *which* is used adjectively.
- 162 In old-fashioned English, we often find *the* before *which*, as "To win time, in *the which* I have considered of a course" (*Cymbel.* iii. 4); "A chamberlaine, *the which that* dwelling was with Emilie" (*Chaucer*).^{*} (Compare the French *le quel*, where *quel* is the equivalent of *which*, being derived from *qualis*).
- 163 The proper correlative of *which* is *such* (A. S. *swyke*, a compound of *swy*, the instrumental form of the root of *swā*, and *lic*, passing through the forms *swilc* and *sulche* to *such*)† as "Such which must go before" (*Bacon*). *Such—which = talis—qualis*.
- 164 *Which* preceded by a preposition is often replaced by *where*, as *wherein = in which*; *whereto = to which*, &c.
- 165 *Who* and *which* can always be used where *that* ‡ can be used. They have also a *continuative* force, which *that* never has. (See § 413).
- 166 The relative pronoun is frequently understood, that is, implied, but not expressed; as, "He has not returned the book I lent him," for "the book *which* I lent him;" "That is the person I spoke of," "for the person *whom* I spoke of." But the relative is not now omitted in good

^{*} The *whom* is found even in Shakspeare (*Wint. T.* iv. 2.)

† *Swyke*, in like manner, passed through the forms *swilc*, *whilch*, and *wuch* or *woch*. The pronunciation *which* has established itself, but *sich* is considered vulgar. In Anglo-Saxon *such* (*swyke*) was relative as well as demonstrative. In some dialects of English there still remains the demonstrative *thick* or *thuck* (from *þy* and *he = talis*).

‡ Some grammarians think that *who* and *which* are not properly used to introduce a *limiting* or *defining* clause, and that in such sentences as "That is the man *who* spoke to us yesterday," "The house *which* he built still remains," the word *that* is preferable. The best writers of English prose do not seem to entertain this view. When prepositions have to be employed, *whom* and *which* are preferred to *that*. In the English Bible it would be difficult to find a clause beginning with *that*, and having a preposition at the end; and when a defining or restrictive clause is wanted after the demonstrative *that*, it always begins with *which* in the English of the Bible.

English, unless, if expressed, it would be in the objective case.

- 167 The adverb *as* (A.S. *ealwa* = *also*, i.e., *all so*, German *als*) is often used as a substitute for a relative pronoun, especially after *same* and *such*; as, "This is not the same as that; "His character is not such as I admire;" "I have not from your eyes that gentleness and show of love as I was wont to have;" (*Shakespeare, Julius Caesar*, i. 2, 45). In vulgar English *as* is commonly used as a simple relative. In old-fashioned German *so* is found doing duty as a relative pronoun. But see note on § 264.

V.—Indefinite Pronouns.

- 168 The Indefinite Pronoun *one* is the numeral adjective used substantively. *One* has a possessive case, as 'One's reputation is at stake.' The plural is used only with reference to a preceding noun, as "I saw three brown horses and two black ones." Its negative is *none*. (See § 95. A.S. *nān* = *ne ān*). In Anglo-Saxon *man* was used for *one** (Comp. Germ. *man*).
- 169 *Aught*† (A.S. *āwīht*) is derived from the Anglo-Saxon substantive *wīht*, a 'thing,' which we still employ as a masculine in the noun *wight*, and *ā* = *ever*. *Naught* is a compound of the negative *ne* and *aught*.
- 170 *Any* (*ānig*) is a derivative from *ān*, 'one,' just as *ullus* in Latin is a diminutive of *unus*. (Key, *Lat. Gr.*, § 334.) In negative and interrogative sentences when *any* refers to a singular noun, it implies *quantity*; when it refers to a plural noun, it implies *number*; as, "This food is bad, I will not eat *any*"; "There were some apples on that tree, did you pluck *any*?" Being used to express *indefiniteness*, it also serves to express *universality*, as "Any one can do that." The negative *nānig* (*n-any*) has vanished.
- 171 *Other* means *one of two* (like the Latin *alter*). It is formed from the root *an*, a variation of the *al* of *αλλος* and *alter*, by means of the comparative suffix *ther* (see § 106, note). When used as a substantive it has the ordinary inflections of a noun.‡

* Vestiges of this use of *man* still remain in such phrases as 'men say' (*on dit*); 'That is all a man can desire.'

† The spelling *ought* and *nought* is old but incorrect. *Nought* was shortened into the adverb *not*.

‡ *Other* originally had the adjective plural suffix *-s*, the dropping of which left the old plural form *other*, as "When other are glad, than is he sad" (*Skellon apud Müllner*).

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nominative Case.</i> . . .	Other	Others.
<i>Possessive Case</i>	Other's	Others'.
<i>Objective Case</i>	Other	Others.

When *an* is used before *other* the two words are usually written together, *another*.

- 172 **Some** (A.S. *sum*) originally meant 'a certain' (Lat. *quidam*), as "Sum man hæfde twegen suna" (*a certain man had two sons*). It still has this force in *somebody*, *sometimes*, *something*. It very early came to mean an undetermined number or quantity forming part of a whole or class. It is used with numerals to give the sense of *about*, as "We four set upon some dozen" (*Shaksp.*, *I. Henry IV.* ii. 4); "He will last you some eight year or nine year" (*Hamlet*).

VI.—The Distributive Pronouns **EACH, EVERY, EITHER, NEITHER.**

- 173 **Each** (A.S. *ælc* = *ā-ge-hwylc*, * Scotch *ilka*) is used both adjectively and substantively.

- 173b In such phrases as, "They loved each other," "They hated one another," the words *each* and *other*, and *one* and *another*, have a reciprocal relation to each other; but it is a mistake to call them compound pronouns (as though equivalent to the Greek *allelai*). They are independent pronouns, having separate and different constructions in the sentences where they occur. In "They loved each other," *each* is in the nominative case, in the attributive relation to *they*, which it distributes in sense; *other* is in the objective case, governed by the verb *loved*.† In Spenser (*Faerie Queen*, i. 5, 6) we find—"With greedy force *each other* doth assail;" that is "each doth assail the other." In "They heard each other's voice," *each* is in the nominative case, agreeing with *they*; *other's* is in the possessive case, attached to the noun *voice*. Such phrases as *to each other*, *from one another*, &c., are corruptions, made upon a false analogy, though they are now thoroughly fixed in the language. In old-fashioned and *correct* English we find *each to other*, *one from another*. It seems anomalous at first sight, that a word like *each*, which is essentially singular, should be attached to a plural word, but we have exactly the same idiom in Latin. *Quisque* in the singular may be used to distribute a plural subject. *Each other* is now used when *two* are referred to, *one another* when more than two are meant; but this distinction is not a necessary one.

- 174 **Every** (old English *everælc* or *everilk*) is a compound of A.S. *æfre*, 'ever,' and *ælc*, and denotes all of a series taken

* The particle *ge* was prefixed to the indefinite pronouns in Anglo-Saxon to give the idea of universality, as *ge-hwa* = *every one*; *ge-hwylc* = *every one*; *ge-hwæðer* = *both*. (Compare the German *Gebrüder* and *Geschwister*.) These forms were strengthened by prefixing *d* = *ever*. Hence came *d-ge-hwylc* = *ælc* = *each*; *d-ge-hwæðer* = *æwðer* = *either*. (*Koch*, i. 483.)

† In Anglo-Saxon this difference is marked by the terminations.

one by one. *Each* and *every* both call attention to the individuals forming a collection. When *each* is used, the prominent idea is that of the subdivision of the collection into its component parts. When *every* is used, the prominent idea is that the individuals taken together make up some whole. In Chaucer, *every* (*everich*) is used substantively. This use is still found in legal phraseology.

- 175 **Either** (A.S. *ægðer* = *ā-ge-hwæðer*) originally meant *both or each of two*; as "On *either* side one" (*John* xix. 18); "On *either* side of the river" (*Rev.* xxii. 2). *Neither* is a compound of *either* and the old negative *ne*. *Either* may have a possessive case, as: "Where *either's* fall determines both their fates" (*Rowe, Lucan* vi. 13).
Every, either, and neither are always singular.*

VII.—The Reflective Pronoun SELF.

- 176 **Self** was originally an adjective, meaning *same*.† It is now both an adjective and a substantive. *Self* (plural *selves*) is used with either the possessive or the objective case of the personal pronouns. It is preceded by what seems the possessive case of the personal pronouns of the first and second persons, and by the objective case of the pronouns of the third person, *myself, thyself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves*.

The pronoun *self* may also be used substantively with the possessive case of a noun, especially along with the adjective *own*; as, "A man's *own self*." "Men's *own selves*." In such cases the pronoun is always in the possessive case, as "*his own self*," "*their own selves*."

The pronoun *one* is generally treated as being on a par with the pronouns of the third person; so that we write *oneself*, not *one's self*.

- 177 The constructions in which *self* appears to be used as a substantive are probably corruptions. In Anglo-Saxon *sylf* was always an adjective, and being declinable, was put in the same case and number as the personal pronoun to which it was attached. But this curious anomaly is found in Anglo-Saxon, that the nominative (or possibly *uninflected*) *sylf* might be preceded by the *dative* case of a pronoun, the compound being often attached to or followed by the nominative ‡ pronoun (*Ic mesylf, þu þe sylf, he himesylf*; or

* The older writers were not clear upon this point. Shakspeare frequently gives a plural sense to *every* and *neither*. Thus, "Every one to rest themselves betake" (*Rape of Lucrece*, 125); "When neither are alive" (*Cymb.* iv. 2, 252).

† "In that selve moment" (*Chaucer*) = "in that *same* moment"; "That self mould" (*Shaksp.*, *R.* II. i. 2) = "that *same* mould." Compare 'selfsame.'

‡ Modern grammarians are horrified at such expressions as "It is *me*." "Who

meself is, &c.; so in Wiclif *we us self, ye you silf*). This dative was perhaps originally rather the dative absolute, than a dative in apposition to a nominative. *Myself* and *thyself* were perhaps corruptions of *meself* and *theself*, the change being probably aided by the fact that *self* was beginning to be treated as a substantive. *Herself* is ambiguous. *Ourselves* and *yourselves* (which are comparatively late forms, *us selve, us silf, ourselven, yourselven*, &c., having preceded them) were probably formed on a false analogy to resemble *myself* and *thyself*. The dative form maintained its ground in *himself, herself, itself, and themselves*,* though this last form is a puzzle, because if *self* be used adjectively, it has no business with the plural suffix *s*, which does not belong to adjectives at any stage of the language. The variations and anomalies in the usage of different periods render it impossible to give any perfectly satisfactory explanation of the use of this pronoun.

In poetry the personal pronouns are used reflectively without being strengthened by *self*, as: "I do repent *me*"; "haste *thee*"; "Signor Antonio commends *him* to you."

VIII. — Pronominal Adjectives, or Possessive Pronouns.

- 178 Besides the possessive cases *mine* or *my*, *thine* or *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, which have now passed into the class of adjectives, we have the secondary adjective forms, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, formed from the preceding by the possessive suffix *s*.† These forms, as well as *mine* and *thine*, are now used only when the noun to which they relate is not expressed. *His* is used in both ways. *Its* is seldom used without a noun. Formerly, *mine* and *thine* were used before words beginning with a vowel or mute

did that? *Me, Sir,*" &c. Nevertheless, it is by no means clear that these forms are inconsistent with the idioms of our language. They are not more at variance with strict rules than *he himself, she herself*, &c.; and the French language tolerates the dative forms *moi, toi, lui*, &c., in constructions where grammatical purity would require the nominative, as "*c'est moi*."

Passing by instances of mere carelessness, examples of the objective pronoun in place of the nominative are found in writers of authority from early times onwards. Thus: "Lord, yworshipped be the" (*Piers Plowman*); "I would not be thee nuncle" (*King Lear* i. 4); "That's me" (*Twelfth N.* ii. 5); "Scotland and thee did in each other live" (*Dryden*). In some provincial dialects the two cases are used interchangeably.

* *His self* and *their selves* are found in the early writers. When *our* and *your* relate to a single person, *self* not *selves* is used, as "We will *oursel* in person to this war"; "You must do it *yourself*." In early English there is a very curious use of the numeral *one* in the sense of *self*, 'him one,' &c. The adjective *lane* (= *alone*) is similarly used in Scotch, 'my lane,' 'him lane,' &c. The pronoun appears to vary between the possessive and the objective, as it does with *self*.

† Compare the double superlatives (§ 117). It is now usual to omit the apostrophe in these words, but many writers still keep it (*our's, your's*, &c.). There is no valid reason for not retaining it. In old writers (as Maundeville and Chaucer) we find *oures, youres, hires*, so that *oures* should become *our's*, just as *kinges* became *king's*. In vulgar and provincial English we also find the double possessives, *ourn, yourn, hern, his'n, theirn*, which, though not recognised in polite English, are just as good as *ours, yours*, &c.

h, *my* and *thy* before the other letters. They are still sometimes used thus in poetry.

In the phrases *of mine*, *of yours* (as 'a book of mine') some grammarians* consider that we have a repetition of the idea of possession.

VERB.

179 A Verb† is that part of speech by means of which we are able to make an assertion about something.

180 The word which stands for what is spoken about is called the subject of the verb (or of the sentence). It is put in the nominative case. A verb expresses with regard to what is spoken about, that it *is something*, that it *does something*, or that it *is the object of some action*.

181 When an adjective is prefixed to a noun, the notion of some quality, attribute, or fact, is connected with our notion of that which is spoken about. If we say a *red apple*, the notion of *red* is connected with that of *apple*. The same end is attained by the use of a verb, with this difference, that when we prefix an adjective to a noun, the connexion between the two notions is spoken of as *already existing*; the use of a verb *effects* the union of the two notions. When we say a *blue coat*, the connexion between the object of thought and its attribute is pre-supposed. When we say, *The coat is blue*, the verb *is* effects the union of the two notions. [The different kinds of sentences that result from the use of verbs are treated of in the Syntax.]

182 Verbs are divided into two classes—Transitive‡ and Intransitive Verbs.

A Transitive Verb is one which denotes an action or feeling which is directed towards some object; as, *strike*, "He *strikes* the ball;" *love*, "He *loves* his father." The word which stands for the object of the action described by the verb is called the object of the verb. It is put in the objective case.

An Intransitive Verb is one which denotes a *state* or *con-*

* Dr. Adams takes this view of them. The general explanation is that "a book of mine" means "a book of my books" (*Latham, Eng. Lang.*, p. 449). If this were necessarily the case, such an expression as "this sweet wee wife of mine," in Burns's song, would suggest unpleasant ideas of bigamy. Koch (ii. p. 236) suggests the explanation that *of* is partitive, and *mine*, &c., universal in sense, so that *of mine* means 'of all that belongs to me.' Perhaps the true explanation is that the *of* does little more than mark identity, as in the expressions, 'The city *of* Rome,' 'A brute *of* a fellow.' In 'a book of yours,' we have a triple expression of the genitive or possessive idea, in *of*, *r*, and *s*.

† Latin *verbum*, "word;" the verb being emphatically the *word* of the sentence.
‡ Latin *transire*, "to go across;" the action passes over, as it were, from the doer of it to the object of it.

dition, or an action or feeling which is not directed towards, or exerted upon an object; as, *to be*, *to dwell*, *to stand*, *to sit*, *to rejoice*, *to run*. Verbs of this kind are sometimes called Neuter Verbs.

- 183 Many verbs which denote actions are used sometimes as transitive verbs, sometimes as intransitive verbs; as, "He *ran* away;" "He *ran* a thorn into his finger." "The child *speaks* already," "He *speaks* several languages." In all such cases there is not only a difference of use, but a real difference of meaning. Thus, *speaks*, "to utter articulate sounds" (intransitive); *speaks*, "to use (a language) as the means of expressing ideas" (transitive). This intransitive use of a verb must not be confounded with the *reflective* use of a *transitive* verb, in cases where the reflective pronoun is understood,* as "The sea *breaks* (itself) on the rocks"; "The clouds *spread* (themselves) over the sky"; "The boats *drew* (themselves) clear of one another"; "The earth *moves* (itself)"; "The needle *turns* (itself) towards the pole." Verbs properly intransitive may be used as transitive, as "He *swam* the Esk river"; "He *fought* his adversaries"; "The student *walks* the hospitals," &c. In old English intransitive verbs were often followed by a pronoun used reflectively, as "Hie thee home"; "Fare thee well"; "Sit thee down." Some compound verbs are used curiously in this way, as: "To over-sleep oneself"; "He over-ate himself"; "Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself."

Transitive verbs are sometimes used with a sort of passive signification, as: "The meat *cuts* tough," i.e., 'is tough when it is cut'; "The cakes *eat* short and crisp," i.e., 'are short and crisp when they are eaten'; "The book *sold* well"; "The bait *took*"; "The bed *feels* hard," i.e., 'is hard when it is felt'; "The rose *smells* sweet"; "The wine *tastes* sour."

- 184 Verbs admit of the following modifications:—Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

Voice.

- 185 Voice is the form of a verb by means of which we show whether the subject of the sentence stands for the *doer*, or for the *object* of the action spoken of by the verb. There are two Voices, the Active Voice and the Passive Voice.

The Active Voice is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the subject of the sentence stands for the

* It is only when thus used that a verb can properly be said to be used *reflectively*. Compare the difference between *lavat se* and *lavatur* in Latin, and between *ῥίπτει ἑαυτὸν* and *ῥίπτεται* in Greek. The following verbs are some of those that may be used reflectively without having the reflective pronoun expressed:—push, extend, stretch, drag, rest, lean, incline, keep, set, bend, feed, open, shut, harden, shorten, lengthen, melt, dissolve, recover, reform, wash, yield, change, dash, refrain, obtrude, intrude, pour, press, remove, settle, steal, stretch, &c.

Several intransitive verbs were once reflective, as, *wend* (*went*), *abscend*, *venture*, *depart*, *consort*, *retire*, &c.

The following are a few of those which are both transitive and intransitive:—act, talk, eat, drink, blow, fly, grow, abide, answer, boil, rain, shake, slip, stay, survive, &c.

doer of the action described by the verb; as, "The boy *strikes* the ball." "The cat *killed* the mouse."

The Passive Voice is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the subject of the sentence stands for the object of the action described by the verb; as, "The ball *is struck* by the boy." "The mouse *was killed* by the cat."

- 186 We may speak of one and the same action by means either of a verb in the active voice, or of a verb in the passive voice; but then the word that is the *object* of the active verb must be the *subject* of the passive verb, as in the above examples.

It is clear that only transitive verbs can properly be used in the passive voice. There are, however, some remarkable exceptions to this principle in English. When an intransitive verb is followed by a phrase made up of a preposition and noun, the intransitive verb may often be used passively with the preposition as an adverbial adjunct. Thus we may say, "I despair of success," "I hope for* reward," and also "Success is despaired of," "Reward is hoped for." We can even say "He was taken care of"; "He was lost sight of," &c. The indirect object may also be the subject of a passive verb, as "The dead were refused burial"; "He was promised a new coat."

- 187 The Passive Voice of a verb is formed by prefixing the various parts of the verb *be* to the perfect participle of the verb. The perfect participle of a transitive verb is *passive* in meaning.

Some intransitive verbs have their perfect tenses formed by means of the verb *be*, followed by the past or perfect participle; † as, "I *am* come;" "He *is* arrived;" "He *is* fallen." Great care must be taken not to confound these with passive verbs. The sign of the passive voice is not the verb *be*, but the *passive participle* that follows it.

Mood.

- 188 Moods (that is, *modes*) are certain variations of form in verbs, by means of which we can show the *mode* or *manner*

* Respecting the view held by some grammarians that in such a phrase as, "I wonder at your folly," *at* has become an adverb, and *wonder at* a compound precisely equivalent to a transitive verb, and having *your folly* for its object, see the note on † 372. Those who maintain this view must be prepared to admit that "to promise a new coat to," and "to take good care of," are compound verbs governing the objective case.

† Some grammarians are pleased to order us to alter these forms into "I *have* come," "He *has* arrived," &c. They had better at the same time mend the French and German languages, which at present still tolerate the forms, *Je suis venu*, *Ich bin gekommen*.

in which the attribute or fact indicated by the verb is connected in thought with the thing that is spoken of.

In English there are four moods:—1. The Infinitive Mood. 2. The Indicative Mood. 3. The Imperative Mood. 4. The Subjunctive Mood.*

To these moods many grammarians add the *Potential Mood*, meaning by that mood certain combinations of the so-called auxiliary verbs *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *must*, with the infinitive mood. This is objectionable. *I can write*, and *I must go*, are no more moods of the verbs *write* and *go*, than *possum scribere* is a mood of *scribo* in Latin; or, *Je puis écrire*, *Ich kann schreiben* and *Ich muss gehen* moods of the verbs *écrire*, *schreiben*, and *gehen* in French and German. Moreover this potential mood would need to be itself subdivided into Indicative forms and Subjunctive forms. The sentences, “*I could do this at one time, but I cannot now*,” and “*I could not do this, if I were to try*,” do not contain the same parts of the verb *can*. In the first sentence, *could* is in the indicative mood; in the second, it is in the subjunctive mood.

1.—The Infinitive Mood.

189 The Infinitive Mood is that form of the verb which is used when the action or state that is indicated by the verb is spoken of without reference to person, number, or time. The infinitive mood has the force of a substantive. It is used (sometimes with, sometimes without the preposition *to*) either as the subject or as the object of some other verb. Thus in “*To rise early promotes health*,” *to rise* is the subject of the verb *promotes*. In “*I love to read good books*,” *to read* is the object of the verb *love*. In “*I dare not do this*,” *do* is the object of the verb *dare*.

190 It is impossible to make an assertion by means of the Infinitive Mood.

191 It is a mistake to suppose that we cannot have an infinitive mood without the preposition *to* before it. Many verbs (as *may*,† *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, *let*, *dare*, *do*, *bid*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *need*) are followed by the infinitive without *to*, as “*You may speak*”; “*Bid me discourse*”; “*He made me turn out of my way*”; “*I feel the shock vibrate through my nerves*,” &c.

* Mood comes from the Latin *modus*, “manner”; Indicative from *indicare*, “to point out”; Imperative from *imperare*, “to command”; Subjunctive from *subjungere*, “to join on to”; Infinitive from *infinitus*, “unlimited.”

† The case is exactly analogous in German. The preposition *zu* precedes the infinitive mood after all verbs except such as answer to the English verbs after which *to* is not required. Becker (in his German Grammar) applies the term *supine* to this combination of *zu* with an infinitive mood. There would be advantages in the use of this name in English grammar, as the combination most nearly approaches the force of the Latin supine in *-um*, and the term gerund might then be restricted to the forms in *-ing*.

The simple infinitive (without *to*) was used in old English as the subject or object of another verb, as "Me lever were *be dead*" (*Spenser*, iii. 2, 6); "Better be with the dead" (*Macb.* iii. 2, 20); "I have heard tell." Also after verbs denoting motion, as "Go play"; "I will go seek the king" (*Hamlet*, ii. 1, 101). In "I had rather not *tell* you," *tell* is a verb in the infinitive mood.

- 192 In Anglo-Saxon, the infinitive mood ended in *-an*, and when used as such, had no *to* before it. A verb in the infinitive might be the subject or object of another verb, or even come after an adjective such as *worthy*, *ready*, &c. The infinitive was however treated as a declinable abstract noun, and a dative form (called the *gerund*), ending in *-anne*, or *-enne*, and preceded by the preposition *to*, was used to denote *purpose*. Thus in "He that hath ears to hear," *to hear* = *to gehyranne*; in "The sower went forth to sow," *to sow* = *to sáwenne*. This gerundive infinitive passed into modern English with the loss of the dative inflection, as in "I came *to tell* you"; "The water is good *to drink*," i.e., *for drinking*; "This house is *to let*"; † "He is *to come* home to-morrow." Here the *to* has its full and proper force. But somehow or other this gerund with *to* came to be used in place of the simple infinitive, as the subject or object of another verb,‡ and so we say "To err is human, *to forgive* divine." Here the *to* is utterly without meaning. We even find another preposition used before it, as "This is Elias which was *for to come*." § When the prepositional infinitive is used as the object of a verb, the *to* has still a vestige of meaning. "I love to hear sweet music" means, "my love is directed towards hearing sweet music." But the force of the *to* is very feeble. From having originally denoted the idea of *purpose* or *object*, the infinitive with *to* has even come to indicate a *cause* or *condition*, as "I am glad *to see* you," i.e., 'at seeing you,' or 'in consequence of seeing you.' So "To hear him talk (i.e., on hearing him talk), one would suppose he was master here."

As this infinitive preceded by *to* has come to us from the Anglo-Saxon gerund, it is often called the *gerundial infinitive*, or the *gerund*. (The latter name is in this work applied to a different form).

2.—The Indicative Mood.

- 193 The Indicative Mood comprises those forms of a verb by means of which a simple assertion can be made without reference to any other fact or event; as, "He *struck* the ball." "I *love* my parents." "We *shall set out* to-morrow."

* An infinitive suffix *-en* or *-e* is still found in Chaucer and Wiclif. As used by Spenser it is antiquated.

† The active infinitive in these phrases is the older and truer form. Chaucer uses "It is *to despise*" = "It is *to be despised*." In the North they still say "What is *to do*!" for "What is *to be done*!"

‡ Even in Anglo-Saxon we find such constructions as "hyt is alyfed wel to donne" (it is allowed to do good); "He ondréd þyder to faranne" (he dreaded to go thither).

§ This use of *for* occurs very early. We still say "I was *about* to observe." In the Northern dialect *at* was used for *to*, as "I have nocht *at do* with the" (*Koch*, ii. p. 61). *Til* (till) was also used.

3.—The Imperative Mood.

- 194 The Imperative Mood includes those forms of the verb by means of which we utter a command (requests and exhortations are only weaker kinds of commands); as, "Give me that book." "Go away."

A direct command must of course be addressed to the person who is to obey it. Hence a strictly imperative mood can only be used in the second person. When we express our will in connexion with the first or third person, we either employ the subjunctive mood (as "Cursed *be* he that first cries hold"; "Go *we* to the king"), or make use of the imperative *let*, followed by an infinitive complement (see § 395), as "Let us pray"; "Let him be heard." These are not imperative forms of *pray* and *hear*, but periphrastic expressions doing duty for them (see § 256).

4.—The Subjunctive Mood.

- 195 The Subjunctive Mood includes those forms of the verb by means of which a fact or event is spoken of, not simply and unconditionally, as a matter of fact, but as merely thought of, as a supposition, or as contingent upon some other fact or event.

The primary distinction between the Indicative and the Subjunctive Mood is, that when the Indicative is used, the connexion between the subject and the predicate is regarded as answering to some *actual* event or state of things, past, present, or future; whereas, when the Subjunctive is used, this connexion is only made *in thought*, without being referred to anything actual outside the mind itself. Hence the Subjunctive is employed to express a will or wish (as "Thy kingdom come"); in clauses denoting *purpose* (as "See that all *be* in readiness"; "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee"); in clauses denoting the purport of a wish or command (as "The sentence is that the prisoner *be* imprisoned for life"); to express a supposition or wish contrary to the fact, or not yet the fact (as "If he *were* here he would think differently"; "Oh! that it *were* possible").

A verb in the Subjunctive Mood is generally (but not always) preceded by one of the conjunctions *if*, *that*, *lest*, *though*, *unless*, &c.; but the Subjunctive Mood is not always necessary after these conjunctions, nor is the conjunction a part of the mood itself.

- 196 In modern English the simple present or past tense of the subjunctive mood is often replaced by phrases compounded of the verbs *may*, *might*, and *should*, which for that reason are called *auxiliary* or *helping verbs*. Thus for "lest sin *surprise* thee," we now commonly say "Lest sin *should surprise* thee."

Participle:

- 197 Participles are verbal *adjectives*, differing from ordinary

adjectives in this, that the active participle can take a substantive after it as its object.

There are two participles formed by inflection, the Imperfect Participle and the Perfect Participle. The imperfect participle always ends in *ing*.* The perfect participle in verbs of the Weak Conjugation ends in *d* or *ed*.† The Imperfect Participle is always *active*, the Perfect Participle is *passive*, provided the verb be a transitive verb; as, "I saw a boy *beating* a dog." "*Frightened* by the noise, he ran away."

- 198 Even in the perfect tenses, as, "I *have written* a letter," the origin of the construction is, "I have a letter written," where *written* is an adjective agreeing with *letter*; in Latin, *Habeo epistolam scriptam*. In French the participle agrees with the object in some constructions; as, "Les lettres que j'ai écrites." In Anglo-Saxon the perfect participle in the perfect tenses was originally inflected, and made to agree with the object of the verb. ‡

- 199 Besides the participles formed by inflection, there are the following compound participles:—

Active Perfect Participle—*Having struck*.

Active Perfect Participle of continued action—*Having been striking*.

Passive Indefinite Participle—*Being struck*.

Passive Perfect Participle—*Having been struck*.

Gerund.

- 200 Besides the participles (which are *adjectives*), most verbs in English have a substantive ending in *-ing* formed from them, called the *gerund*.§ A gerund is like an imperfect

* The termination of this participle in Anglo-Saxon was *-ende*, which was subsequently changed to *-inde*, and finally to *-inge*, *-ynge*, and *-ing*. In the Northern dialect the termination was *-ande* or *-and*, which long maintained its ground in the North of England and in Scotland, and sometimes occurs in Chaucer. The essential letters of the suffix are *nd*. This suffix is akin to the Latin *-ent* or *-nt* and the Greek *-ont* or *-ont*.

† The letter *y*, which is found as a prefix in one or two old forms (as *yclept* 'called'), and is affected by some writers in others, is derived from the Anglo-Saxon prefix *ge*.

‡ As "He hæfþ man geweorhtne" (he has created man); "Hig hæfdon heora lof-sang gesungenne" (they had sung their praise-song). But the accusative suffix began to be dropped even in Anglo-Saxon (Koch, ii. p. 36).

§ The true origin of the gerund is a point of some difficulty, owing to forms derived from more than one source having become almost inextricably blended together. There are two classes of verbal substantives in *-ing*. Of these one is merely a modification of the Anglo-Saxon verbal nouns in *-ung*, the continuous use of which can be traced. These have the ordinary construction of nouns, as "For earnunge eon lifes," 'for earning of eternal life' (Grein, ii. p. 286); "Thei weren at robbing," 'they were a robbing' (Layamon); "On hunting ben they ridden," 'a hunting are they ridden'; "I fare to gon a begging" (Chaucer); "I go a fishing" (John xxi. 3); "Forty and six years was this temple in building"; "While the ark was a preparing." (The *a* is a weakened form of *on* or *in*). Such phrases

participle in form, but is totally distinct from it in origin and construction. As the verbs *have* and *be* have gerunds, there are also certain compound forms, which may be called *compound gerunds*, made up of the gerunds of these verbs combined with participles; as, *having gone*, *being loved*, *having been writing*, *having been struck*.

- 201 Gerunds are followed by the same construction as the verbs from which they are derived. They are used either as the subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions,* as, "I like *reading*," "He is fond of *studying* mathematics," "He is desirous of *being distinguished*," "After *having been writing* all the morning, I am tired," "Through *having lost* his book, he could not learn his lesson."
- 202 Participles (being adjectives) are never used as the subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions. It must be observed, too, that in all such compounds as a *hiding-place*, a *walking-stick*, &c., it is the gerund, and not the participle, which is used. If the latter were the case, a *walking-stick* could only mean a *stick that walks*.

Tense.

- 203 Tense (Latin *tempus*, 'time') is a variation of form in verbs, or a compound verbal phrase, indicating partly the time to which an action or event is referred, and partly the com-

as "I am a doing of it," though now obsolete, are perfectly grammatical. The omission of the preposition led to what some have mistaken for a passive use of the participle in *-ing*, as "the house is building." We have here the direct descendants of the nouns in *-ung*. (Compare e.g. "ge beot on hatunge," 'ye shall be hated.' (*Matt. x. 23*). Some maintain that there is no gerund in *-ing* distinct from these modernised nouns in *-ung*. To this view it may be objected that the nouns in *-ung* furnish no explanation of the origin of the compound gerunds, and that the verbals in *-ing* commonly called gerunds have a power of governing objects which never belonged to the nouns in *-ung*. When we say "he was hanged for killing a man," the objective relation of *man* to *killing* is (now at any rate) as distinctly in our thoughts as that of *man* to *killed* when we say "he killed a man." Consequently even if it could be shown that the formation in *-ung* was the parent of all the noun formations in *-ing*, a large class of these would still be entitled to a new classification and a new name, just as adverbs that have acquired the force of prepositions require to be classed and named as such. It is better to allow (with Koch) that, besides the descendants of the nouns in *-ung*, there is a class of verbal substantives in *-ing*, descended from the old Anglo-Saxon gerund, which Koch traces (ii. § 98) through such forms as *to bodiannes*, *to bodiende*, *to floonds*, *in tornand*, *to accusinge*, *for to brennyng*, &c. The weakening and final omission of the preposition would lead to the modern form, the development of which may have been assisted by the influence of the French gerund in *-ant*, which in most French grammars is confounded with the present participle. (In Italian the forms are distinct, and the extensive use of the gerund is remarkable). An infinitive in *-ing*, which is set down in some grammars as a modification of the simple infinitive in *-an* or *-en*, is a perfectly needless and unwarranted invention. The descendants of the *-ung* nouns are quite competent to discharge such special functions as are attributed to it.

* The grossness of the mistake which is made in confounding the participle with the gerund in English, becomes most palpable when beginners, who have been led astray by their English grammars, render such phrases as "He talks about fighting," by the Latin "Loquitur de pugnante." In such French expressions as *en attendant*, the word in *-ant* is a gerund, derived from a Latin form in *-ando*. The adjective in *-ant* is derived from the participle in *-ans* (*-antis*).—Max Müller.

pleteness or incompleteness of the event at the time indicated.

- 204 If inflection alone were the criterion of tense, we should have to limit the tenses in English to two, the present and the past indefinite; but the theoretical precision of the arrangement would not be worth the inconvenience that it would entail.

- 205 There are three divisions of time to which an event or a state may be referred, — the Present, the Past, and the Future. Hence, if the *time* of an event were the only thing to be considered, there could not be more than three tenses. But, besides the time of an action, there are three ways in which an action or event may be viewed:—

1. It may be spoken of as incomplete, or still going on. A tense which indicates this is called an *imperfect* tense.

2. It may be spoken of as complete. A tense which indicates this is called a *perfect* tense.

3. It may be spoken of without distinct reference to other events, with regard to which it is complete or incomplete. A tense in which an action is thus spoken of is called an *indefinite* tense. The indefinite tenses are employed when an action or event is spoken of as one whole, without reference to its duration; as, "He *strikes* the ball." "He *fell* to the ground." "He *will break* his neck."

- 206 An action may be viewed in these three ways with reference to past, to present, or to future time. We thus get nine primary tenses.

- | | | |
|----|---|---|
| A. | { | 1. The Past Imperfect, showing that at a certain past time an action was going on; as, <i>I was writing; I was being taught.</i> |
| | | 2. The Past Perfect, showing that at a certain past time an action was complete; as, <i>I had written; I had been taught.</i> |
| | | 3. The Past Indefinite (or Preterite), speaking of the action as one whole referred to past time; as, <i>I wrote; I was taught.</i> |
| B. | { | 1. The Present Imperfect, showing that an action is going on at the present time; as, <i>I am writing; I am being taught.</i> |
| | | 2. The Present Perfect, showing that at the present time a certain action is complete; as, <i>I have written; I have been taught.</i> |
| | | 3. The Present Indefinite, speaking of the action as one whole, referred to present time; as, <i>I write; I am taught.</i> |

- C. { 1. The Future Imperfect, showing that at a certain future time an action will be going on; as, *I shall be writing*; *I shall be being taught*.
 2. The Future Perfect, showing that at a certain future time an action will be complete; as, *I shall have written*; *I shall have been taught*.
 3. The Future Indefinite, speaking of an action as one whole, referred to future time; as, *I shall write*; *I shall be taught*.

207 From this table it appears at once that *perfect* and *past* are not the same. A tense is past, present, or future, according to the *time* with reference to which an action is spoken of, not according to the completeness or incompleteness of the action at that time. When we say, "*I have written*," although the act of writing took place in past time, yet the *completeness* of the action (which is what the tense indicates) is referred to *present time*. Hence the tense is a *present* tense, although it speaks of an action that is completed. To justify us in using this tense, it is necessary that the state of things brought about by the action should still exist at the present time. We may say, "England has founded a mighty empire in the East," because the empire still lasts: but we cannot say, "Cromwell has founded a dynasty," because the dynasty exists no longer.

208 The *indefinite* tenses are often *imperfect* in sense. Thus, "*I stood during the whole of the performance*." "*While he lived at home he was happy*." The verbs in such cases would have to be rendered into the past *imperfect* tense in French, Latin, or Greek (see § 216).

209 Besides the primary tenses given in § 206, we have the following:—

The Present Perfect of continued action—I *have been writing*.

The Past Perfect of continued action—I *had been writing*.

The Future Perfect of continued action—I *shall have been writing*.*

210 The Present Indefinite Tense is used not only of what takes place now, but also of what frequently or habitually takes place; as, "John often *goes* to the theatre." "He *writes* beautiful poems." "It *rains* here almost every day." It is also used of what is universally true; as, "Virtue *is* its own reward." "Honesty *is* the best policy." It is also used with reference to what is future,† in cases in which in Latin a future or future perfect tense would be used; as, "When he *comes*, I will speak to him." "If

* Some grammars give combinations like "I am going to write," as *tenses* (*Present Intentional, Past Intentional, &c.*). This is quite unnecessary. "I am going to write," and "I am intending to write," are not tenses of the verb *write*, but of the verbs *go* and *intend*, followed by a gerundial infinitive, which constitutes either an object or an adverbial adjunct to it.

† Our language admits this idiom the more readily, as in Anglo-Saxon the same form served for both the present and the future tense.

he *hits* me, I will hit him again." In lively narrations also, the speaker or writer often imagines himself to be *present* at the events he is describing, and so uses the *present* tense in speaking of *past* events. When thus used, the tense is called the *Historic Present*.

- 211 A Substantive has no relation to any time in particular. The Infinitive Mood is virtually a substantive. Hence the Infinitive Mood does not indicate time.* It admits only of the distinctions in tense called Imperfect, Perfect, and Indefinite. "[To] *be writing*" is an Imperfect Tense, but it may refer either to present or to future time. In "I ought to *be writing* my letters now," it refers to present time; in "I shall *be travelling* to-morrow," it refers to future time.

- 212 The tenses of the English verb are made partly by inflection, partly by the use of auxiliary verbs.

The Present Indefinite and the Past Indefinite in the Active Voice are the only two tenses formed by inflection.

The Imperfect tenses are formed by the indefinite tenses of the verb *be*, followed by the imperfect participle. †

The Perfect tenses are formed by means of the indefinite tenses of the verb *have*, followed by the perfect participle.

The Future tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mood: *shall* being used for the first person, *will* for the second and third in affirmative principal sentences; but in subordinate clauses, after a relative, or such words as *if*, *when*, *as*, *though*, *unless*, *until*, &c., the verb *shall* is used for all three persons; ‡ as, "If it *shall* be proved"; "When they *shall* turn unto the Lord"; "When He *shall* appear we *shall* be like Him."

- 213 When the verb *will* is used in the first person and the verb *shall* in the second and third, it is implied that the action spoken of depends upon the will of the speaker. *Shall* (like *sollen* in German) implies an obligation to do something. Hence *shall* is appropriately used in commands (as "Thou shalt not kill"), in promises or threats (as "You shall have a holiday"), and in the language of prophecy, which is an utterance of the Divine will or purpose. *Shall* is used in the first person as a simple

* The same is the case with the Participles in English. They express *imperfect* and *perfect*; but not *past* or *present*.

† It is pretty certain that the view adopted by Max Müller and others, that the compound imperfect tenses originated in the use of the verbal nouns in *-ing* (*I am writing* having been originally *I am a writing*, &c.; see note on § 200) is incorrect. The participle in *-ende*, *-and*, *-yng*, or *-ing*, is found from the earliest period onwards, side by side with the use of the verbal noun in *-ung* or *-ing*, as: "Hig wæron etende and drincende," they were eating and drinking' (*Matt. xxiv. 38*); "Harold was comend" (*P. Langtoft*). The sense of the compound *imperfect* tenses was however commonly expressed by means of the uncompounded *indefinite* tenses. (See § 208.)

‡ In early English *shall* is the usual future auxiliary.

auxiliary of a future tense, on much the same principle as that on which a person subscribes himself at the end of a letter, "Your obedient humble servant." It implies a sort of polite acknowledgment of being bound by the will of others, or at least by the force of circumstances. By a converse application of the same principle, the verb *will* is used in the second and third persons to imply that the action referred to depends upon the *volition* of the person to or of whom we speak. In questions, however, and in reported speeches, the force of the verb *shall* is the same in the second and third persons as it would be in the answer, or as it was in the direct speech: "*Shall* you be present?" "*I shall*." "*I shall* not set out to-morrow;" "*I said I should* not set out to-morrow," or, "*John said that he should* not set out to-morrow." The verb to be used in a question depends upon the verb expected in the reply. We say, "Will you go?" if we expect the answer, "I will."*

- 214 All moods and tenses in the Passive Voice are made by means of auxiliary verbs; the Passive Voice of a verb consisting of its perfect participle, preceded by the various moods and tenses of the verb *be*.†
- 215 The Indefinite Tenses and the Indefinite Participles of the Passive Voice are a little ambiguous in meaning. They may refer either to the *action* indicated by the verb, or to the *results* of the action. In the latter case they are not strictly *tenses* of the passive voice, but the participle that follows the verb *be* is used as an adjective. In "*He was terrified at the sight*," *was terrified* is a past indefinite tense of the passive voice of the verb *terrify*. It represents an action exerted upon a certain person. In "*He was terrified*," so that he could not speak," the verb of the sentence is *was*, and *terrified* is a mere adjective.‡ In "*Every house is built by some man*," *is built* is a present indefinite tense passive of the verb *build*. In "*This house is built of stone*," *is* is the verb, and *built* is used as an adjective.
- 216 From the following table it will be seen that the English language admits of greater accuracy than any other in the expression of all the shades of meaning that are involved in *tense*. In other languages the same form often has to do double duty.

* In Anglo-Saxon the present often did duty for the future, as: "Aefter þrim dagon ic arise," "After three days I shall rise again" (Matt. xxvii. 68); "Aelo treow . . . byð forcorfen," "Every tree . . . shall be cut down" (Matt. iii. 10), but the compounds with *shall* and *will* were also used. The future perfect belongs only to modern English. The past indefinite often served for the modern past indefinite, present perfect, and past perfect, e.g., "mine eðgan geaþwon þine hæle," "mine eyes have seen thy salvation" (Luke ii. 30).

† In Anglo-Saxon there were two auxiliary verbs for forming the passive, *beon* and *weorðan*, the latter (like *werden* in German) being employed to denote that something is the object of a *definite action*, and not merely that it is in the state resulting from an action. The participle being in the predicative relation to the subject, was made to agree with it.

‡ This distinction can be easily marked in Greek and in German. "The letter is written" may be rendered either "ἡ ἐπιστολὴ γράφεται," and "Der Brief wird geschrieben," or "ἡ ἐπιστολὴ γεγραμμένη ἐστίν," and "Der Brief ist geschrieben." In Anglo-Saxon the present and past perfect passive were expressed by means of the present and past indefinite tenses.

Comparative Table of Tenses in English, Latin, French, German, and Greek.
ACTIVE VOICE.
INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
<i>Present</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>	He writes He is writing He has written	scribit scribit scripsit	γράφει γράφει γέγραφε	il écrit il écrit il a écrit	er schreibt er schreibt er hat geschrieben
<i>Past</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>	He wrote He was writing He had written	scripsit scribebat scripserat	ἔγραψε ἔγραφε ἔγγραφε	il écrivit il écrivait { il avait écrit } { il eut écrit }	er schrieb er schrieb er hatte geschrieben
<i>Future</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>	He will write He will be writing He will have written	scribet scribet scripserit	γράψει γράψει ..	il écrira il écrira il aura écrit	er wird schreiben er wird schreiben er wird geschrieben haben
<i>Perfect of continued action</i>	He has been writing, &c.	..	..	..	..

PASSIVE VOICE.
INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
<i>Present</i> <i>Indefinite</i> <i>Imperfect</i> <i>Perfect</i>	It is written It is being written It has been written	scribitur scribitur { scriptum est } { scriptum fuit }	γράφεται γράφεται γέγραπται	il est écrit .. il a été écrit	es wird geschrieben es wird geschrieben es ist geschrieben worden
	It was written It was being written It had been written	{ scriptum est } { scriptum fuit } scribebatur	ἐγράφθη ἐγράφθη ἐγγράφητο	il fut écrit .. { il avait été écrit } { il eut été écrit }	es wurde geschrieben es wurde geschrieben es war geschrieben worden
	It will be written It will be being written It will have been written	scribetur scribetur scriptum erit	γραφθήσεται γραφθήσεται γεγραμμένον	il sera écrit .. il aura été écrit	es wird geschrieben werden es wird geschrieben werden es wird geschrieben worden seyn

Number.

- 217 Number is a modification of the form of a verb, by means of which we show whether the verb is spoken of one person or thing, or of more than one. There are, therefore, two numbers in verbs, corresponding to the two numbers in substantives.

Person.

- 218 Person is a modification of the form of verbs, by which we indicate whether the speaker speaks of himself, or speaks of the person or persons addressed, or speaks of some other person or thing. There are three persons—the First Person, the Second Person, and the Third Person.*

The First Person includes those forms of the verb which are used when the speaker speaks of himself either singly or with others.

The Second Person includes those forms of the verb which are used when the subject of the verb stands for the person or persons spoken to.

The Third Person includes those forms of the verb which are used when the subject of the verb denotes neither the speaker nor the person spoken to.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

- 219 The conjugation of a verb is the formation of all the various inflections and combinations used to indicate the Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons of which the verb is capable. The varieties in the conjugation of verbs depend upon the formation of the Infinitive, the Past Indefinite or Preterite Tense, and the Perfect Participle. All other parts of a verb are formed from these according to unvarying rules.

* Observe that the *subject* of the verb forms no part of the *person* of the verb. The first person of the present tense of the verb *be* is *am*, not *I am*. It is usual, however, to conjugate verbs with a subject expressed, for the sake of clearness.

The suffixes by which Person is marked were originally neither more nor less than the Personal Pronouns. These can be traced in various languages, but, as might be expected (see § 27), usually appear in very mutilated forms, or disappear altogether. The characteristic letter of the suffix for the first person was *m* (compare *met*, *me*, &c.), for the second *s* (compare Greek *su*, *se*), for the third *t* (the root consonant of various demonstratives, as *to* in Greek, *tam*, *tum*, &c. in Latin, *this*, &c. in English). Combined with a mark of plurality, *s* or *n*, these are found in the plural. (Compare *-mus*, *-tis*, *-nt* in Latin; *-mes* in old High German). In English the suffix *-m* still appears in *am* (in A. S. also in *beom*). Compare the Latin *sum*, *inquam*, *amem*, &c. In *-st* or *-est* the *t* is a phonetic offgrowth of the *s*, which is the suffix in Gothic, and is found in the Northumbrian dialect (compare *amidet*, &c.). In the third person *-th* is now commonly softened to *-s*. The plural suffixes had in Anglo-Saxon become the same for all three persons (see Appendix A).

Verbs in English are divided into two well-defined and widely different classes, distinguished by the formation of the preterite. These are:

A. *Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.*

B. *Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.*

Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.

- 220 The Strong Conjugation is based upon a mode of forming the preterite which belongs to various members of the Aryan family of languages. In the Strong Conjugation the Preterite (or Past Indefinite Tense) was originally formed by *reduplication*, i.e. by repeating the root of the verb. This formation was weakened (1) by omitting the final consonant from the first member of the doubled root; * (2) by weakening the vowel sound of the initial syllable to one uniform letter, and frequently by weakening or modifying the vowel sound of the second root as well; † (3) by omitting the initial consonant of the second member of the doubled root, so that the vowel of reduplication and the vowel of the root came in contact with each other, and were commonly blended into one ‡ sound. Thus it has come to pass that in English (with two exceptions), the preterite of verbs of the Strong Conjugation is formed by modifying the vowel sound of the root.

Two preterites in English distinctly show reduplication, namely, *did* from *do*, and *hight* (was called) from the old verb *hātan*, where *gh* is a variety of the guttural *h* at the beginning.§

- 221 In English the perfect participle of all verbs of the strong conjugation was originally formed by the (adjective) suffix

* In Sanscrit perfect tenses are formed thus, just as in Latin, from *tud* (the root of *tundo*) we get *tu-tud-i*; from *mord*, *mo-mord-i*; from *dic* (the root of *disco*) *di-dic-i*.

† In Greek the initial consonant is repeated, but with the vowel sound weakened to *e* (as *de-dū-ka*). This formation occurs in several verbs in Latin, as *pe-pul-i* (from *pello*); *pe-pig-i* (from *pango*); *ce-cid-i* (from *cado*). In Gothic the reduplication consisted of the initial consonant followed by *ai*, as *haitan* (to call), *hai-hait*. In Anglo-Saxon the reduplication once consisted of the first consonant followed by *eo*. (Koch, i. p. 240).

‡ Thus in old Frisian the preterite from the root *halđ* passed through the stages *ha-hald*, *ha-hīd*, *ha-īd* to *hēd*. In Latin the root *lĕg* (in *lego*) passed through the stages *le-leg-i*, *lē-ĕg-i* to *lēgi*; the root *vēn* (in *venio*) through *vē-vēn-i*, *vē-ēn-i* to *vēni*; the root *fac* through *fē-fēc-i*, *fē-ēc-i*, to *fēci*.

§ It is obvious that the changes described tended to result in giving a fuller and broader sound to the vowel of the root.

¶ In Gothic the preterite is *haihait*. A few other Anglo-Saxon preterites show reduplication, especially when compared with Gothic. Thus *rēðan* (to advise), pret. *reord*, shortened from *reo-rēð* (Gothic *rēðan*, *rairoth*); *lētan* (to let), pret. *leort* (for *leolt*), shortened from *leoltēt* (Gothic *lētan*, *lailot*); *lēcan* (to leap), pret. *lōlc*, shortened from *leo-lēc* (Gothic *laikan*, *lailaik*); *on-drēdan* (to dread), pret. *on-dreord*, shortened from *on-dreo-drēd*.

-en and the prefixed particle *ge*. The suffix -en has now disappeared from many verbs, and the prefix *ge* from all.

Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

- 222 The characteristic of the Weak Conjugation is that the preterite tense was originally formed by annexing to the root the preterite of the verb *do* (root *da*). This suffix became abbreviated* in Anglo-Saxon to -*de* or -*te*,† and was attached to the root by a connecting vowel *o* or *e* (which disappeared after some consonants). In modern English the suffix *de* or *te* has become *d* or *t*, and the connecting vowel is always *e*. When a verb ends in *e*, that *e* is omitted before the connecting vowel of the suffix, as *love*, *lov-ed*. The suffix -*ed* is pronounced as a separate syllable only after a dental mute, as in *need-ed*, *pat-t-ed*, *mend-ed*. The vowel *y* after a consonant is changed into *i* before it, as *pity*, *pitied*. After a sharp guttural or labial mute *ed* has the sound of *t*, as in *tipped*, *knocked*.

It thus appears that in origin, as well as in meaning, *I loved* is equivalent to *I love did*, or *I did love*.

- 223 The perfect participle in the weak conjugation was formed by the suffix *d* or *t*,‡ joined to the root by *o* or *e* as a connecting vowel, and had the particle *ge* prefixed. The force of this particle was extremely feeble, and after a time it vanished (§ 221), so that now the perfect participle of most verbs of the weak conjugation is the same in form as the preterite.
- 224 Since the auxiliary suffix of the Weak Conjugation is a reduplicated or *strong* form, it follows that the Strong Conjugation is the older of the two. Whenever fresh verbs are formed or introduced, they are of the weak conjugation.§

225 A.—Verbs of the Strong Conjugation||.

1. *Verbs in which the preterite is formed by vowel-change, and the perfect participle has the suffix -en or -n.*

* All suffixes were originally independent words, with a meaning of their own. Their frequent occurrence, and their position at the end of words, led to their being carelessly pronounced. Hence they became abbreviated and corrupted in form, till in many cases their original meaning can only be guessed at, or deduced from a comparison of several cognate languages.

† In Gothic the reduplicated auxiliary root (*ded*) appears in the dual and plural of the preterite indicative, and in all three numbers of the past subjunctive (*Skeat, Mosso-Gothic Glossary and Grammar*, p. 801).

‡ Probably an adjective formation, akin to the Greek *τε* and the Latin *tus*. (*Morris*, p. 168).

§ *String*, *strung*, *strung* is a solitary exception.

|| Koch (followed by Morris) arranges these verbs according to their Anglo-Saxon forms, which is the most convenient plan when all the successive variations are to be traced. But as these forms are not original, but belong only to one stage in the process of change, and by no means explain all those that follow, an arrangement is here adopted, which is based upon the present usage of the language.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
(a.) blow	blew	blown	draw	drew	drawn
crow	crew	[crowed] once crown	fly	flew	flown
grow	grew	grown	lie	lay	lien or lain
know	knew	known	slay	slew	slain
throw	threw	thrown	see	saw	seen
show	[shew]* or showed	shown			
(b.) drive	drove or drave	driven	stride	strode	stridden
give	gave	given	strike	struck	stricken
ride	rode	ridden	strive	strove	striven
(a)rise	(a)rose	(a)risen	thrive	throve	thriven
smite	smote	smitten	write	wrote	written
(c.) forsake	forsook	forsaken	take	took	taken
shake	shook	shaken			

2. In most of the following verbs there is a tendency to assimilate the vowel-sound of the preterite to that of the perfect participle.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
bear	bare or bore	borne or born †	swear	sware or swore	sworn
beat	beat	beaten	tear	tare or tore	torn
break	brake or broke	broken	wear	wore	worn
cleave ‡	clave or clove	cloven or cleft	weave	wove	woven or wove
shear §	shore	shorn	choose	chose	chosen
speak	spake or spoke	spoken	freeze	froze	frozen
steal	stole	stolen	tread	trode or trod	trodden or trod

3. In the following verbs the preterite has a second form, which is only the perfect participle transformed into a preterite.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
begin	began or began ¶	begun	get	gat or got	gotten or got
bid	bade or bid	bidden or bid	ring	rang or rung ¶	rung
drink	drank or drunk ¶	drunken ** or drunk	shrink	shrank or shrunken ¶	shrunken ** or shrunken

* A provincial form, found also in Spenser.

† *Born* is now used only with reference to birth. *Borne* means carried.

‡ Also weak, *cleave*, *cleft*, *cleft*.

§ Also of the weak conjugation.

|| *Chose* was an old form of the present.

¶ These forms are now usually avoided by the best writers.

** These forms are now used only as adjectives.

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
sing	sang or sung *	sung	spring	sprang or sprung *	sprung
sink	sank or sunk *	sunken † or sunk	stink	stank or stunk	stunk
spin	span or spun	spun	strike	strake or struck	stricken † or struck
spit	spat or spit	spit or spat	swim	swam or swum *	swum

4. In the following verbs the preterite is the perfect participle † used as a preterite.

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
bind	bound	bound	shoot	shot	shotten or shot
bite	bit	bitten or bit	slide	slid ¶	slidden or slid
burst	burst	burst	sling	slung	slung
chide	chid ‡	chidden or chid	slink	slunk	slunk
climb	clomb	[clomben]	slit	slit	slit
cling	clung	clung	stick	stuck	stuck
fight	fought	fought	string	strung	strung
find	found	found	swing	swung	swung
fling	flung	flung	win	won	won
grind	ground	ground	wind	wound	wound
hang	hung	hung	wring	wrung	wrung
hide	hid	hidden or hid			

5. In the following verbs the perfect participle has been borrowed from the preterite.

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
abide	abode	abode	sit	sat	sat
awake	awoke	awoke	stand	stood	stood
heave	hove	[hoven]	strike	struck	stricken or struck
hold	held	holden or held	take	took	taken or took **
let	let	let	spit	spat or spit	spat or spit
shine	shone	shone or shined			
seethe	sod	sodden or sod			

* These forms are now usually avoided by the best writers.

† These forms are now used only as adjectives.

‡ When there are two forms of the perfect participle, the short form is adopted for the preterite. Besides those given the short forms *driv*, *emit*, *rid*, *ris*, are used as preterites by some of the old writers. In vulgar English we often hear "I seen him"; "He done it"; "I give it him," &c.

§ *Chode* occurs in *Gen.* xxxi. 88, "Jacob chode with Laban." The weak form *chidde* is also found.

¶ Also of the weak conjugation.

¶ Formerly *stode*.

** *Took*, *mustook*, *forsook*, *shook*, *rode*, *strove*, *swam*, *drank*, &c., are used as perfect participles by Shakspere.

6. *Unclassified forms.*

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
eat	ate or eat	eaten	run	ran	run
dig	dug	dug	come	came	come
[bequeath]	quoth*				

B.—Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

226 Besides the large class of what are frequently called Regular Verbs, because the preterite and perfect participle are uniformly made by the simple addition of *-ed*, which includes all verbs of French or Latin origin, the following verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation :—

1. *Verbs in which the addition of the suffix d or t is accompanied by a shortening of the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
bereave	bereft †	bereft	kneel	knelt	knelt
creep	crept †	crept	leave	left	left
deal	dealt	dealt	lose	lost	lost ‡
dream	dreamt §	dreamt	mean	meant	meant
feel	felt	felt	sleep	slept †	slept
flee	fled	fled	sweep	swept	swept
hear •	heard	heard	weep	wept †	wept
keep	kept †	kept	shoe	shod	shod

2. *Verbs in which the suffix has been dropped after the shortening of the vowel.*

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
bleed	bled	bled	meet	met	met
breed	bred	bred	read	read	read
feed	fed	fed	speed	sped	sped
lead	led	led	light	lit	lit

3. *Verbs in which the addition of d or t is accompanied by a change in the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
beseech ¶	besought	besought	seek	sought	sought
buy	bought	bought	teach	taught	taught
catch **	caught	caught	think ††	thought	thought
bring ††	brought	brought	tell	told	told
sell	sold	sold			

* The simple *queath* (*cweðan*) is no longer used. To *bequeath* is to allot a thing by speaking. Compare the verb *bespeak*.

† Also *bereaved*.

‡ In early writers we find *crep* for *crepte*, *slep* for *slepte*, *wep* for *wepte*. *Keep* is a common vulgarism for *kept*.

§ Also *dreamed*.

¶ In Anglo-Saxon (*for*)*loren* was softened into (*for*)*loren*, which is still preserved in *loren* and *forloren*. In a similar way *frore* is found for *frozen*. "The parching air burns *frore*" (*Par. Lost*, ii. 595).

¶ *Beseech* is a compound of *seek*.

** The *t* is not radical. It is only used to indicate that *ch* has the sibilant sound.

†† The *n* in these verbs is not radical.

4. Verbs in which the suffix *te* has disappeared, but has changed a final flat mute into a sharp mute.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
bend	bent	bent	build	built	built or buildied
blend	blended	blent			
gild	gilt or gilded	gilt or gilded	rend	rent	rent
gird	girt or girded	girt or girded	send	sent	sent
lend	lent	lent	spend	spent	spent
			wend	went or wended	wended

5. Verbs in which the suffix has disappeared without further change.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
cast	cast	cast	set	set	set
cost	cost	cost	shed	shed	shed
cut	cut	cut	shred	shred	shred
hit	hit	hit	shut	shut	shut
hurt	hurt	hurt	slit	slit	slit
knit	knit	knit	split	split	split
put	put	put	spread	spread	spread
rid	rid	rid	thrust	thrust	thrust

6. Verbs which have preserved the formation of the strong conjugation in the perfect participle.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
go	—	gone	shape	shaped	shapen or shaped
[en]grave	[en]graved	[en]graven or engraved	shave	shaved	shaven or shaved
help	helped	holpen or helped	shew	shewed	shewn or shewed
hew	hewed	hewn or hewed	sow	showed	sown or sowed
load	loaded	laden or loaded	strew	strewed	strewn, or strewed
melt	melted	molten or melted	swell	swelled	swollen or swelled
mow	mowed	mown or mowed	wash	washed	washen or washed
rive	rived	riven or rived	wax	waxed	waxen or waxed
saw	sawed	sawn or sawed			

7. Verbs not included in the preceding classes.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>P. Part.</i>
can	could	—	owe	ought	—
clothe	clad	clad	shall	should	—
freight	freighted	fraught or freighted	lay*	laid	laid
			say*	said	said
may	might	—	will	would	—

* The *y* in these verbs is a weakened form of the guttural *cg*

Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.	Pres.	Pret.	P. Part.
work	wrought or worked	wrought or worked	have	had (i.e. haved)	had
dare	durst	dared	make	made (i.e. maked)	made

8. *Tight* is a participle of *tie* (A.S. *tigan*). *Distraught* is an exceptional form from the verb *distract*. *Straight* is for *stretched*. *Dight* is from *deck* (= *bedecked*). *Yclept* is from the old verb *elypian* = to call. In *clad* the *a* is the original vowel (A.S. *claf*). The *th* has disappeared before the *d*. *Go* borrows a preterite from the verb *wend* (properly to *wend* (or turn) one's way). *Be* has a participle of the strong form. *Am*, *was*, and *been* come from three different roots.

In Appendix A will be found a list of strong verbs that have become weak.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

- 227 Several verbs in English are *defective*; that is, have not the full complement of moods and tenses. Those which are still in common use are *shall*, *will*, *may*, *must*, *can*, *ought*, *dare*, *wit*.

A peculiarity which all these verbs (except *will*) have in common, is, that the present tense is in reality a preterite of the strong conjugation,* which has replaced an older present, and has had its own place supplied by a secondary preterite of the weak conjugation. One consequence of this fact is, that they none of them take *s* as a suffix in the third person singular, as that suffix does not belong to the preterite tense.

228

SHALL.

No Infinitive Mood.† No Participles.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] shall	1. [We] shall
2. [Thou] shalt‡	2. [You] shall
3. [He] shall	3. [They] shall

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] should	1. [We] should
2. [Thou] shouldst	2. [You] should
3. [He] should	3. [They] should

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] should	1. [We] should
2. [Thou] shouldst or shouldst	2. [You] should
3. [He] should	3. [They] should

* This is evident from the tense suffixes in Anglo-Saxon, which are those of the preterite, not those of the present tense. These preterite-presents may be compared with *olda*, *novi*, &c., in Greek and Latin.

† In Anglo-Saxon *sculan* = to owe.

‡ The suffix *t* in the second person singular of the past indefinite in the strong conjugation is older than *-st*. It is found in Gothic.

|| The termination *-st* in the second person singular in the subjunctive mood, is a deviation from the ancient principle of formation. In Anglo-Saxon, the three persons were alike in the subjunctive mood in both tenses.

229 *Shall* (A.S. *sceal*) is (in form) a preterite.* When it came to be used as a present tense, another preterite (*should*) of the weak conjugation was formed to supply its place. The *ou* of *should* comes from the *u* of *sculan*. In Anglo-Saxon, 'I shall' means 'I owe.'†

It then came to indicate some compulsion or obligation arising either from the will of some superior authority, or from some external source. Hence it is used in direct or reported commands, as "Thou shalt not steal"; "The general gave orders that he should be shot"; "Ye shall not surely die," *i.e.*, "There is surely no edict that ye shall die"; "The tyrant shall perish," *i.e.*, "Circumstances, or the will of others demands that the tyrant shall perish"; "He demanded where Christ should be born," *i.e.*, "where it was fated or prophesied that he was to be born"; "You should always obey your parents," *i.e.*, "It is your duty to obey your parents." It often conveys this sense in the first person, as "What shall I do?" *i.e.*, "What ought I (or am I) to do?" and even when used as an auxiliary verb denoting simple futurity in the first person, the verb does not really lose this force (see § 213). It is now only a verb of incomplete predication, and is followed by the infinitive without *to*.

In exclamations it is often omitted, as "What, I love! I sue! I seek a wife!" "Thou wear a lion's hide!" (*Shakespeare*).

In Scotch and in the Northern dialects *I shall* is often abbreviated to *I' se* or *I sh*.

230

WILL.

Infinitive Mood, [To] will.

Imperfect Participle, Willing.

Perfect Participle, Willed.

Compound Perfect Participle (active), Having willed.

The infinitive mood and the participles of this verb are only used when it has the stronger of its two senses.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] will	1. [We] will
2. [Thou] wilt	2. [You] will
3. [He] will or wills ‡	3. [They] will

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] would	1. [We] would
2. [Thou] wouldst or wouldst	2. [You] would
3. [He] would	3. [They] would

* According to Grimm *shall* or *skal* is the preterite or perfect of a verb meaning *to will*. As killing involved the payment of the penalty or *wer-geld*, 'I have killed' came to mean 'I owe the fine,' and thence 'I owe' simply.

† "Hu micel scealt þu?" = "How much shalt thou?" = "How much owest thou?" (*Luke xvi. 5*). But the verb is also used in Anglo-Saxon as the auxiliary of the future tense.

‡ This form is used only when the verb is employed in its strong sense.

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] would	1.	[We] would
2.	[Thou] wouldst or wouldst	2.	[You] would
3.	[He] would	3.	[They] would

The verb *will* is followed by the infinitive, without the preposition *to*; as, "I *will* strive"; "He *will* not obey."

- 231 This verb, besides being used as a mere auxiliary for forming future tenses* in the second and third persons, is used to express determination or intention. It has this force in all its persons, as—"Not as I *will*, but as thou *wilt*"; "In spite of warning, he *will* continue his evil practices." When used in the strong sense of "having a determination" to do something, the verb *will* may be conjugated like an ordinary regular verb; but in this case the preposition *to* must be used with the infinitive that follows it.
- 232 This verb is also used to express the frequent repetition of an action; as, "When he was irritated, he *would* rave like a madman," "Sometimes a thousand twanging instruments will hum about my ears" (*Shaksp., Tempest*).
- 233 *Wilt* has been formed after the analogy of *shall*, although it is strictly a present tense (see note on § 228). In old English *shal* and *wil* are found for *shall* and *will*.
- 234 An old form of the present was *I wol* or *I wole*, whence the negative *I won't*. In colloquial English the verb is often shortened by the omission of *wi* or *woul*, as *I'll*=*I will*, *I'd*=*I would*. In old English it was combined with the negative *ne*, *ie nille*=*I will not*, *ie nolde*=*I would not*. We still have the phrase *willy nilly*=*will he nill he*, or *will ye nill ye*.

235

MAY.

No Infinitive Mood. No Participles.†

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		Past Indefinite Tense.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] may	1. [We] may	1. [I] might	1. [We] might
2. [Thou] mayest or mayst	2. [You] may	2. [Thou] might- est	2. [You] might
3. [He] may	3. [They] may	3. [He] might	3. [They] might

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] might	1.	[We] might
2.	[Thou] mightest	2.	[You] might
3.	[He] might	3.	[They] might

* See however § 213.

† That is, not now. In Chaucer we find "If goodly had he might" (*Koch, i p. 365*)

- 236 The *g* in *may* is a softening of the *y* in the root *mag* (A.S. Inf. *magan*). The modern present, *I may*, &c., is in reality a preterite tense of an older verb,* and (like *memini*, *novi*, &c.) had originally a *perfect* meaning of its own, which passed into a secondary *present* sense, denoting the abiding result of some action. Instead of *thou mayest* we find in old English *thou miht* † or *myght* (compare *shall*), afterwards *thou may* (compare *thou shalt*, § 233).
- 237 A collateral variety of *may* was *mow* or *mowe*, of which the past tense *mought* is used by Spenser (*F. Q. i. l. 42*), and is a common provincialism.
- 238 The verb *may* formerly denoted the possession of strength or power to do anything. ‡ It now indicates the absence of any physical or moral obstacle to an action, as "It may be so, though I scarcely believe it"; "A man *may* be rich and yet not happy"; "He might be seen any day walking on the pier," *i.e.*, 'there was nothing to hinder his being seen.' Hence it came to be used as an optative. "May you be happy," is as much as to say "I desire that you be free from hindrance to your happiness." The notion of *permission* also springs from this meaning, the hindrance which is absent being the prohibition of some authority.
- The verb *may* is now often employed as a mere auxiliary (followed by an infinitive mood) to replace the simple subjunctive after *that* and *lest*. Instead of "Give me this water that I thirst not," we now say "that I may not thirst."

MUST.

- 239 *Must* (A.S. *mōste*) is the preterite § of the verb *mōtan*=to be allowed, or to be in a position to do something. || It still has this sense in such phrases as "You must not come in," *i.e.*, 'You are not permitted to come in.' The old present *mote* is still used by Spenser. ¶
- 240 When the preterite *must* came to be used as a present, it acquired a stronger sense, and was used to express (1) *being bound or compelled* to do something, as "He *must* do as he is bid": (2) *being unable* to control the desire or will, hence a *fixed determination* to do something; as "I *must* and will have my own way"; "So you *must* always be meddling *must* you?": (3) *Certainty*, or the idea that a thing cannot but be as is stated; as "He surely *must* have arrived by this time"; "It *must* be so; Plato thou reasonest well."
- 241 The verb *must* is now used only in the indicative mood, sometimes as a present, sometimes as a past tense,** but there is no difference

* Compare note on § 227.

† Thus "Amende thee while thou myght."

‡ Thus "Gif þu wilt þu miht me geclænſian," "If thou wilt thou canst make me clean" (*Matt. viii. 2*); "Būtan nettum huntian ic mæg," "I can hunt without nets."

§ The *s* of *must* is a softened form of the *t* of the root *mot* before the *t* of the suffix. Compare the form *wist* (§ 245). See *Koch*, i. p. 356.

|| *E.g.* "Josep bæd Pilatus þæt he mōste niman þæs Hælendes hofhaman," "Joseph begged Pilate that he might be allowed to (*must*) take the Saviour's body." (*John xix. 38*).

¶ "Fræliassa was as faire as faire mote bee" (*F. Q. i. 2, 37*). Byron, who sometimes affects archaisms without understanding them, uses *mote* as a *past tense*, "Whate'er this grief mote be, which he could not control."

** In "He must needs pass through Samaria" (*John. iv. 4*) *must* is in the past tense. When past time is referred to, however, *must* is usually followed, by the perfect infinitive, as "It must have been a sad day, when the old man died."

of form to mark tense, number, or person. It is a verb of incomplete predication followed by the infinitive without *to*.

242

CAN.

No Infinitive Mood. No Participles.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		Past Indefinite Tense.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] can	1. [We] can	1. [I] could *	1. [We] could
2. [Thou] canst	2. [You] can	2. [Thou] couldst or couldst	2. [You] could
3. [He] can	3. [They] can	3. [He] could	3. [They] could

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] could	1. [We] could
2. [Thou] couldst or couldst	2. [You] could
3. [He] could	3. [They] could

- 243 The present *can* is in reality the preterite tense of the verb *cunnan* = *to know*.† The infinitive *conne* is found in Chaucer (as "I shal not conne answer" = "I shall not be able to answer"), and still subsists in the verb *to con* (as, "He was conning his lesson"). *Cunning* (now used as an adjective) is in reality the present participle of the verb. "He is a *cunning* fellow" means "He is a *knowing* fellow." The old perfect participle *cunne* (*known*), still survives in *uncouth*.‡ "Thou *can*" for "Thou *canst*" is found in old writers§ (see § 233). *Can* is now a verb of incomplete predication, and is followed by the infinitive without *to*.

244

OUGHT.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] ought	1. [We] ought
2. [Thou] oughtest	2. [You] ought
3. [He] ought	3. [They] ought

Ought exhibits very clearly the substitution of a preterite for a present. It is the past tense of the verb *to owe*, and is used in its old sense by Shakspeare (*I. King H. IV.*, iii. 3.), "He said you ought him a thousand pounds." It is now used as a past only in the reported form, as "He said I *ought* to be satisfied." In direct sentences the reference to past time is indicated by using a perfect infinitive after it, as "He ought *to have said so*," i.e., "It was his duty to say

* The *I* in *could* had no business to intrude itself. It is not found in the Anglo-Saxon verb. It was probably inserted to make *could* resemble *would* and *should*, where the *i* is radical. The Anglo-Saxon form is " *Ic cūtha.*"

† "Ne cunn ic eow" = "I know you not" (*Matt.* xxv. 12); "They conne latyn out litlylle" (*Maunderville*).

‡ In Milton (*Lycidas*, 186) the "uncouth swain" means the "poet as yet unknown to fame." So "his uncouth way" (*P. L.*) means "his unknown way."

§ As in Skelton.

so.' "He ought (*pres.*) to do it" means 'he owes the doing of it.*

The original meaning of 'to owe' was 'to possess,' † *owe* and *own* being collateral forms.‡ "You *owe* me a thousand pounds" means "You *possess* (or have) *for* me a thousand pounds." Though the dative is really essential to the meaning, the verb came to have its modern sense independently of the dative. The adjective *own* is really a participle of *owe*.

There used to be a perfect participle *ought*.§ The verb *to owe*, in its modern sense, is conjugated regularly as a verb of the weak conjugation. In early writers there is a curious impersonal use of this verb, as "Wel *ought* us werche" (*Chaucer, C. T.* 15482), "Us *ought* have pacience" (*Ch. Mel.*).

245

WIT.

To wit (A.S. *witan*) means 'to know.' "I do you to wit," means 'I make you to know.' The adverbial (gerundial) infinitive, *to wit* is still common. The forms *I wot*, *God wot*, *you wot*, *they wot*, are found in old writers. *Wot* is a preterite of the strong form, which has supplanted the old present,|| and has been replaced by a preterite *wist* of the weak conjugation.¶

Wots and *wotteth* (*Gen.* xxxix. 8) are false forms (see § 227), as is the participle *wotting* (*Winter's Tale*, iii. 2). The old form was *witende*. The correct form is retained in *unwittingly*.

Combination with the negative *ne* gave the old English forms *nat* = *know not*, *niste* = *knew nat*, &c.

246

DARE.

Infinitive Mood [To] dare.

Participles, daring, dared, having dared.

Indicative Mood.

<i>Present Indefinite Tense.</i>			<i>Past Indefinite Tense.</i>		
<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. [I] dare	1. [We] dare	1. [I] durst	1. [We] durst		
2. [Thou] darest	2. [You] dare	2. [Thou] durstest(?)	2. [You] durst		
3. [He] dare	3. [They] dare	3. [He] durst	3. [They] durst		

* Compare the Latin 'Hoc facere debet.' *Debeo* is a compound of *de* and *habeo*: 'I have from' = 'I owe to.'

† So in Shakspeare (*All's Well*, ii. 5), "I am not worthy of the wealth I owe." According to Grimm *I owe* (*ic dh*) is itself the perfect of a verb *igan* = *to labour*, and means 'I have earned.' *Ought* is therefore a preterite or perfect of the second degree, being a preterite of a preterite.

‡ Thus in Chaucer (*Mel.*) we find "I own not to be counselled by thee."

§ Phrases like "He *hadn't ought* to do it" are perfectly grammatical, though they are now vulgar.

|| The root *wit* is the same as *fið* in the Greek *φιδειν*, and *vid* in the Latin *vid-eo*, and originally meant *see*. The preterite present *wot* may be compared with the Greek *οἶδα*. 'I have seen' = 'I know.'

¶ The *s* of *wist* is a softened form of the *t* of *wit* before the *t* of the suffix. This change occurs in various Teutonic languages. Compare *must* (§ 239, note), "I wist not that he was the high priest" = "I *knew* not," &c. (*Acts* xxiii. 5). *Wist* has nothing to do with an imaginary present *I wis*, which (when not a mere affectation) is simply a corruption of the word *gwis* = *certain* (A.S. *gewis*). The verb *to wisse* = *to show* or *teach* (A.S. *wisian* or *wissian*) is a different verb, though derived from the same root.

Subjunctive.

Past Indefinite [I] *durst*, &c.

I dare is a preterite (of the strong form) of the old verb *durran*, which has ousted the old present, and has itself been replaced by a preterite (*durst*) of the weak formation.* The use of *durst* as a present is quite incorrect.

As in the other verbs of this class (see § 227) the third person singular should be without the suffix *s*; *he dare*, not *he dares*. *Dare* (especially in the sense of *challenge*) is also conjugated like an ordinary verb of the weak conjugation, and some of these forms are occasionally borrowed for the defective verb; and so we find *he dares* and *he dared*, &c. The following infinitive must then have *to* before it, as "He dared to refuse." The defective verb is followed by the infinitive without *to*, as "He *durst* not refuse."

- 247 The following defective verbs are now obsolete, or nearly so. Quoth *I* or *he* (i.e., *said I* or *he*; Anglo-Saxon, *cwæthan*, "to say"). The impersonal *thinks* (= *seems*, from the Anglo-Saxon *thincan*, "to appear," a different verb from *thencan*, "to think"), in *methinks* (*it seems to me*, *methought* (*it seemed to me*). Comp. the German verb *dünken*, "to seem"). *Me-lists*=*It pleases me*; *him listed*=*it pleased him*. Shakspeare uses *list* as a personal verb.† *Worth* (*is or be*), as in the phrase "woe worth the day," that is, "*woe be to the day*"), a relic of the Anglo-Saxon *weorðan*, "to become" (German, *werden*), which was one of the auxiliaries by means of which the passive voice was formed. *Wont* is now used only as a participle. Formerly, *I wont*, *he wont*, &c., were used in the indicative mood. *Hight* ‡= *was called* (§ 220).

From its resemblance in construction to the other verbs of incomplete predication, the verb *need* has the third person *he need* instead of *he needs*. When the inflected form is used, the following infinitive should have *to* before it.

248 The Notional and Auxiliary Verb

HAVE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] *have*. *Imperfect Tense*, [To] *be having*.

Perfect Tense, [To] *have had*.

Participles.

Imperfect Participle, *Having*. *Perfect Participle* (passive), *Had*.

Compound Perfect Participle (active), *Having had*.

* The *s* of *durst* comes from the fuller form of the root *dars* or *daurs*, which appears in Gothic (*Koch*, i. p. 351). Compare the Greek *θάρσσειν* (*Morris*, p. 184).

† So the old impersonals *him hungrede*, &c., became *he hungered*, &c. (Compare §§ 514, 515, 523.)

‡ As: "This grisly beast, which by name *Lion hight*, the trusty *Thisbe* . . . did scare away" (*Mids. N. D.*, v. 1). There is no participle *hight*, though Byron invents one. (Compare note on § 239.)

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] have	1. [We] have
2. [Thou] hast*	2. [You] have
3. [He] hath or has	3. [They] have

Present Perfect Tense.†

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] have had, &c.	1. [We] have had, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] had	1. [We] had
2. [Thou] hadst	2. [You] had
3. [He] had	3. [They] had

Past Perfect Tense.†

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] had had, &c.	1. [We] had had, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] shall have	1. [We] shall have
2. [Thou] wilt have	2. [You] will have
3. [He] will have	3. [They] will have

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] shall have had, &c.	1. [We] shall have had, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
Have [thou]	Have [you or ye]

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(Used after *if, that, lest, unless, &c.*)

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] have	1. [We] have
2. [Thou] have	2. [You] have
3. [He] have	3. [They] have

Present Perfect Tense.

(Used after *if, that, unless, &c.*)

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] have had	1. [We] have had
2. [Thou] have had	2. [You] have had
3. [He] have had	3. [They] have had

* *Hast* is a contraction of *havent, had of haved, has of haves.*

† For the complete forms of these compound tenses, see the corresponding tenses of the verb *smile*.

*a. Past Indefinite Tense.*Used mostly after *if, that, unless, &c.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] had	1. [We] had
2. [Thou] hadst	2. [You] had
3. [He] had	3. [They] had

b. Secondary or Periphrastic Form.*

When not preceded by Conjunctions.†

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] should have	1. [We] should have
2. [Thou] wouldst have	2. [You] would have
3. [He] would have	3. [They] would have

*a. Past Perfect Tense.*Used mostly after *if, that, unless, &c.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] had had	1. [We] had had
2. [Thou] hadst had	2. [You] had had
3. [He] had had	3. [They] had had

b. Secondary or Periphrastic Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] should have had	1. [We] should have had
2. [Thou] wouldst have had	2. [You] would have had
3. [He] would have had	3. [They] would have had

249 The verb *have* often has the sense of *to keep* or *to hold*. In this case it may have the *imperfect* tenses, and may be used in the passive voice like an ordinary verb.

For the formation of these tenses see the paradigm of the verb *smite*.

The Notional and Auxiliary Verb **BE.**

Infinitive Mood.*Indefinite Tense*, [To] be.*Perfect Tense*, [To] have been.*Imperfect Participle*, Being. *Perfect Participle*, Been.*Compound Perfect Participle*, Having been.

* Periphrastic means 'expressing in a roundabout manner.' (Greek περί, *about*; φράσσω, *I tell*.)

† After *if, though, unless, lest, except, &c.*, the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should*, not *wouldst* and *would*.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] am*	1. [We] are
2. [Thou] art	2. [You] are
3. [He] is	3. [They] are

Present Perfect Tense.†

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] have been, &c.	1. [We] have been, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] was	1. [We] were
2. [Thou] wast or wert‡	2. [You] were
3. [He] was	3. [They] were

Past Perfect Tense.†

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] had been, &c.	1. [We] had been, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] shall be	1. [We] shall be
2. [Thou] wilt be	2. [You] will be
3. [He] will be	3. [They] will be

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] shall have been, &c.	1. [We] shall have been, &c.

Imperative Mood.

<i>Singular.</i> —Be [thou]	<i>Plural.</i> —Be [ye or you]
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Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

After if, that, though, lest, &c.

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] be	1. [We] be
2. [Thou] be	2. [You] be
3. [He] be	3. [They] be

* Another form of the present tense, indicative mood, still used in some parts of the country, and found in Shakspeare and Milton, is [I] be, [thou] beest, [he] be, [we] be or ben, [you] be or be-n, [they] be, ben, or bin. In "Everything that pretty bin" (*Shaksp.*), bin is probably plural, everything being treated as equivalent to *all things* (see † 175). Byron's use of bin ("There bin another pious reason") is of no authority. See note on † 239.

† For the full forms of these compound tenses see the paradigm of the verb *omit*.

‡ There is no necessity for regarding *wert* as exclusively a subjunctive form. In Anglo-Saxon the form was *wære*. *Thou were* is found in early English writers. *Wert* is formed after the analogy of *wilt* and *shall*. The form *wast* did not appear in English before the fourteenth century, and was preceded by *was* (*thou was*). *Wert*, as a subjunctive form, belongs only to modern English. (*Koch*, i. p. 348.)

ETYMOLOGY—VERB.

*Present Perfect Tense.*After *if, that, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] have been	1. [We] have been
2. [Thou] have been	2. [You] have been
3. [He] have been	3. [They] have been

*a. Past Indefinite Tense.*Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] were	1. [We] were
2. [Thou] wert	2. [You] were
3. [He] were	3. [They] were

b. Secondary or Periphrastic Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] should be	1. [We] should be
2. [Thou] wouldst be	2. [You] would be
3. [He] would be	3. [They] would be

*a. Past Perfect Tense.*Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] had been	1. [We] had been
2. [Thou] hadst been	2. [You] had been
3. [He] had been	3. [They] had been

b. Secondary or Periphrastic Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. [I] should have been	1. [We] should have been
2. [Thou] wouldst have been	2. [You] would have been
3. [He] would have been	3. [They] would have been

251 The conjugation of this verb is made up from three different roots. (1). The present tense of the indicative mood is formed from the old Aryan root *as*, which appears in Greek and Latin in the form *es*, in Gothic in the form *is*. The *s* of the root is softened to *r* in *am*† (= *arm*), *art* and *are*. *Are* is an abbreviation of the Anglo-Saxon *ar-on*, which has the personal suffix of a past tense. *Is* (a variety of the root *as*) has no suffix.

(2). The present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, and the participles are formed from the root *be*. There was formerly also a present indicative from this root. (See note on § 250).

(3). The past indefinite tense of the indicative and subjunctive is formed from the root *wes* or *was* in the old verb *wesnan* = [*to*] *be, s* being softened to *r* in the plural and in the subjunctive. *Wast* has the suffix *t* (like *shalt, &c.*, see § 228). *Was* (like *is*) is without suffix.

* After the conjunctions *if, though, unless, lest, except, &c.*, the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should*, not *wouldst* and *would*.

† See § 251 (3). The *t* in *ar-t* corresponds to the *t* in *shalt-t*. (See § 228.)

In old English the forms *nam* = *am not*; *nart* = *art not*, &c., were made by prefixing the negative *ne*.

- 252 The verb *be* is a most important verb for the right understanding of the etymology and syntax of verbs in general, because it has distinct forms for the past indefinite in the indicative and subjunctive moods. In no other verb is there a corresponding difference of form, though there is a real difference of mood. This identity of form, concealing a real difference of construction, is a fact of very common occurrence in English; as in the nominative and objective cases of nouns, the three different persons in the plural of verbs, &c. The verb *be*, therefore, is a *test* verb. By substituting it in place of any other verb in a sentence where the construction is doubtful or difficult, we can see directly what part of the verb it is that is really used. In such sentences as, "He *would* not come when I called him;" "He *could* not lift the weight when he tried;" "Ye *would* not come unto me that ye might have life" (i.e., Ye did not choose to come); "He told me that I might go" (i.e., that it *was* permitted me to go); "You *should* not have done that" (i.e., it *was* your duty not to have done that); the verbs *could*, *would*, *might*, are in the indicative mood: the sentences are simple assertions. On the other hand, in such sentences as these—"I *could* not do it if I *were* to try;" "I *should* not have said that, if you *had* not asked me;" "I *would* not tell you if I *could*;" "He *might* have done it if he *had* liked!"—the verbs which are in italics are in the subjunctive mood.

253 The Notional and Auxiliary Verb DO.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] do.

Imperfect Tense, [To] be doing.

Perfect Tense, [To] have done.

Participles.*

Imperfect, Doing.

Perfect (passive), Done.

Compound Perfect, Having done.

Do (when used as a notional verb) is not defective in Voice, Mood, or Tense. It is remarkable as being one of the only two remaining verbs in which the preterite is formed by reduplication (§ 220). It requires no *to* before the following infinitive (except in the phrase 'I do you *to wit*').

- 254 As a notional verb (or verb of complete predication) it is used both transitively* (as "He did the wrong"), and intransitively (as "I shall not *do so*," i.e., 'I shall not *act so*'). It had also the sense of *put*. Thus *dan* = *do on* = *put on*; *dup* = *do up* = *put up*, [German, *aufthun*] or *open*; *doff* = *do off* = *put off*; *dout* (*douse*) = *do out* = *put out*.

* The form *doest* is only used in this sense.

As a verb of complete predication *do* (when followed by the infinitive) had formerly the sense of *make* or *cause*. Thus "They have done her understode" = "They have made her understand" (*Gower*); "Here did she fall a tear," i.e., "Here she let a tear fall" (*Richard II.*, iii. 4). "We do you to wit." When used as a mere auxiliary, it is employed—1, to give emphasis,* as "I do love you," "That does astonish me"; 2, to form interrogative sentences, as "Do you hear?" "Did you understand?"; 3, to form negative sentences, as "I do not hear you" "We did not speak." As an auxiliary *do* has none of the compound tenses.

- 255 Interrogative sentences are formed in two ways. 1st. By placing the verb before its subject, as, "Said he not so?" "Went they not this way?" With any of the compound tenses, active or passive, the subject of the verb is always placed after the auxiliary verb, as "Shall we begin?" "Have you dined?" "Were you hurt?"

2nd. By using the verb *do*, followed by the infinitive mood: "Do you hear?" "Did you learn your lesson?"

But the verb *do* is never employed when the *subject* of the sentence is an interrogative pronoun, or when an interrogative word qualifies either the subject or an adjective attached to the subject, as, "Who broke the window?" "Which boy did this?" "How many persons voted?"

In poetical language, a sentence is made negative by simply putting *not* after the verb; as, "I heard not his voice." In prose the verb *do*, with the infinitive mood, is employed; as, "I do not understand," "He did not reply." But *do* is never used in this way to replace a compound tense of the active voice, or any tense of the passive voice; nor is it used, either in negations or in questions, with the verbs *have*, *be*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, *will*, *durst*.

- 256 The verb *let* is now employed (in the second person imperative) as a verb of incomplete predication, followed by an objective case and an infinitive mood, to form a substitute for an imperative in the first or third person, as "Let me see": "Let us pray"; "Let him go on," &c. (see § 572*d* for the analysis of these sentences). This use of *let* is based upon the same principle as that of *shall* in the future tense (see § 213). Formerly *let* had the stronger meaning of *make* or *cause*, as "He let her wit" (*Chaucer*, 786); "He lette two cofres make" (*Gower*).

Complete Conjugation of an English Verb.

- 257 The following table exhibits the personal *inflections* that are made use of in conjugating a verb. Let a single stroke

* Formerly this periphrasis conveyed no emphasis, unless stress was laid on the auxiliary. (See the English Bible and Shakspeare *passim*.) With the elision of the dependent infinitive it still forms a weak repetition of a preceding verb; as, "I do not spend so much as he does [spend]." It is never followed by the infinitive *have* and *be*, except in the imperative mood, as "Do have patience"; "Do be quiet."

† It may be said that it is much easier to call "Let us go" the first person plural imperative of the verb *go*, and so on. So it is. It is always easier to shirk a difficulty than to solve it. The objection to the easier course is that it is false. *Us* cannot be the subject of a *finite* verb, and *le* cannot be of the first person. (Compare the German "Lasset uns beten.") A complex grammatical phrase has not been explained when its parts have been jumbled together into one lot, and ticketed with a wrong name.

(————) stand for the infinitive mood (without *to*), and a double stroke (=====) for the first person singular of the past indefinite tense.

Imperfect Participle. —ing.*

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.†	
1. ————		1. ————	
2. ————	est or st	2. ————	
3. ————	eth,‡ es, or s.	3. ————	

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1. =====		1. =====	
2. =====	est or st‡	2. =====	
3. =====		3. =====	

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1. ————		1. ————	
2. ————		2. ————	
3. ————		3. ————	

Past Indefinite Tense.

The same as in the Indicative Mood.

Verbs ending in a mute *e* drop the *e* before the suffixes *ing*, *est*, and *eth*.|| *Do* takes *th*, not *eth* in the present tense (*doth*: *doeth* is obsolete). The suffix *eth* is now seldom used except in poetry. (See § 22.) The suffix *es* is added to verbs ending in a sibilant (as *pass-es*, *catch-es*); *o* (as

* Verbs in *ie* form the imperfect participle with *y* instead of *ie*: as *die*, *dying*; *sie*, *tying*. The verb *dye* retains the mute *e* (*dyeing*), to distinguish it from *dying*.

† It is curious that in early English the termination of the plural of this tense in all three persons was *-s* in the Northern, *-en* in the Midland, and *-eth* in the Southern districts: "They hopes" (N.); "They hopen" (M.); "They hopeth" (S.). (*Morris, Spec.* p. xii.) The plural *-es* or *s* often occurs in Shakspeare, as: "Words to the heat of deeds too cold breath gives" (*Oth.* i. 1). In the modern editions these plurals have often been unwarrantably altered. (See *Abbott*, p. 235.)

‡ In old writers, when this suffix is added to verbs ending in a dental, we often find the vowel omitted, and the dental blended with the suffix into a *t*, as *bindt* for *bindeth*; *finst* for *findeth*; *stant* for *standeth*; *holdt* for *holdeth*. ("Disner.") A solitary specimen of this is preserved in *list* ("When she list" *Shaksp.*).

§ This suffix originally belonged only to the weak conjugation. In the strong conjugation the suffix was *-e*, which long maintained its ground, *e.g.*, *thou creese*; *thou sawe* (*Skelton*). In the Northern dialect the *e* was thrown off, so that we find such forms as *thou gaf*, *thou saw*, &c. (See § 236.) In early English *est* or *st* was often thrown off in verbs of the weak conjugation, as "Why had (= *ne had*) thou put" (*Chaucer, C. T.* 4086). This was especially the case in the Northern dialects.

|| The pronunciation of *fe-eth*, *se-eth*, &c., shows that the suffix is *-eth* not *-th*. The *e* of *est* may be dropped whenever the pronunciation allows.

go-*es*, do-*es*); or *y* preceded by a consonant, as *fi-es*, *piti-es*. (See § 48.) If a verb ends in *ic*, *c* is changed to *ck* before -*ing*, -*ed*, or -*eth*, to preserve the hard sound of the *c*, as *trafficking*, *mimicked*. (See also § 22.) The letter *p* is usually doubled, even when the last syllable is not accented, as *kidnapped*, *worshipped*.

The formation of the compound tenses will be obvious on an examination of the following verb.* The learner must analyse it carefully, and it will then be unnecessary to set down the rules at full length.

SMITE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] smite.

Imperfect Tense, [To] be smiting.

Perfect Tense, [To] have smitten.

Perfect of continued action, [To] have been smiting.

Participles.

Imperfect, Smiting.

Perfect, Having smitten.

Perfect of continued action, Having been smiting.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] smite	1.	[We] smite
2.	[Thou] smitest	2.	[You] smite
3.	[He] smites or smiteth	3.	[They] smite

Present Imperfect Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] am smiting	1.	[We] are smiting
2.	[Thou] art smiting	2.	[You] are smiting
3.	[He] is smiting	3.	[They] are smiting

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] have smitten	1.	[We] have smitten
2.	[Thou] hast smitten	2.	[You] have smitten
3.	[He] has smitten	3.	[They] have smitten

* It will not be easy to make mistakes in the verb which is here given. There is not a large choice of verbs which are transitive, denoting a single action which may be prolonged or repeated, having the past indefinite tense and the perfect participle different, and making some reasonable sense when conjugated through all varieties of voice, mood, and tense. Most grammars follow the very objectionable plan of giving as a model some verb in which the past indefinite tense and the perfect participle are the same in form. If a dozen beginners were set to analyse such a verb, three-fourths of them would probably pronounce the present perfect tense to be made up of *have* and the past indefinite tense.

Present Perfect of continued action.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] have been smiting, &c. | 1. [We] have been smiting, &c. |

Past Indefinite Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] smote | 1. [We] smote |
| 2. [Thou] smotest | 2. [You] smote |
| 3. [He] smote | 3. [They] smote |

Past Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] was smiting | 1. [We] were smiting |
| 2. [Thou] wast smiting | 2. [You] were smiting |
| 3. [He] was smiting | 3. [They] were smiting |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] had smitten | 1. [We] had smitten |
| 2. [Thou] hadst smitten | 2. [You] had smitten |
| 3. [He] had smitten | 3. [They] had smitten |

Past Perfect of continued action.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] had been smiting, &c. | 1. [We] had been smiting, &c. |

Future Indefinite Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] shall smite | 1. [We] shall smite |
| 2. [Thou] wilt smite | 2. [You] will smite |
| 3. [He] will smite | 3. [They] will smite |

Future Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] shall be smiting, &c. | 1. [We] shall be smiting, &c. |

Future Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] shall have smitten, &c. | 1. [We] shall have smitten, &c. |

Future Perfect of continued action.

[I] shall have been smiting, &c.

Imperative Mood.*

Singular.—Smite [thou]. *Plural.*—Smite [you or ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After if, that, though, lest, unless, &c.)

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] smite | 1. [We] smite |
| 2. [Thou] smite | 2. [You] smite |
| 3. [He] smite | 3. [They] smite |

* A perfect imperative is now and then met with, as "Have done"; "Be gone."

*Present Imperfect Tense.*After *if, that, though, lest, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] be smiting	1.	[We] be smiting
2.	[Thou] be smiting	2.	[You] be smiting
3.	[He] be smiting	3.	[They] be smiting

*Present Perfect Tense.*After *if, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] have smitten	1.	[We] have smitten
2.	[Thou] have smitten	2.	[You] have smitten
3.	[He] have smitten	3.	[They] have smitten

*Present Perfect of continued action.*After *if, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] have been smiting, &c.	1.	[We] have been smiting, &c.

*Past Indefinite Tense.*Used mostly after *if, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] smote	1.	[We] smote
2.	[Thou] smotest	2.	[You] smote
3.	[He] smote	3.	[They] smote

Secondary, or Periphrastic Form.*

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] should smite	1.	[We] should smite
2.	[Thou] wouldst smite†	2.	[You] would smite
3.	[He] would smite	3.	[They] would smite

*Past Imperfect Tense.*Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] were smiting	1.	[We] were smiting
2.	[Thou] wert smiting	2.	[You] were smiting
3.	[He] were smiting	3.	[They] were smiting

* These secondary forms have almost replaced the older and simpler forms in conditional assertions. Instead of saying, "It were vain to tell thee all I feel," we should commonly say, "It would be vain," &c. Instead of "I had fainted unless I had believed to see the goodness of the Lord," we say now, "I should have fainted," &c. In German the corresponding forms keep their place side by side. *Ich wäre* = *Ich würde seyn*. After *the*, in clauses denoting purpose, the present indefinite and past indefinite subjunctive are usually replaced by *may* and *might*, followed by the infinitive of the verb.

† After the conjunctions *if, though, unless, lest, except, &c.*, the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should*, not *wouldst* and *would*.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] should be smiting	1.	[We] should be smiting
2.	[Thou] wouldst be smiting*	2.	[You] would be smiting
3.	[He] would be smiting	3.	[They] would be smiting

Past Perfect Tense.

Used mostly after *if, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] had smitten	1.	[We] had smitten
2.	[Thou] hadst smitten	2.	[You] had smitten
3.	[He] had smitten	3.	[They] had smitten

Secondary or Conditional Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] should have	1.	[We] should have
2.	[Thou] wouldst* have	2.	[You] would have
3.	[He] would have	3.	[They] would have

Past Perfect of continued action.

Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] had been smiting, &c.	1.	[We] had been smiting, &c.

Secondary or Periphrastic Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

[I] should have been smiting; [Thou] wouldst* have been smiting, &c.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] be smitten.

Imperfect Tense, [To] be being smitten.

Perfect Tense, [To] have been smitten.

Participles.

Indefinite Participle, Being smitten.

Perfect Participle, Smitten.

Compound Perfect Participle, Having been smitten.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.†

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] am smitten	1.	[We] are smitten
2.	[Thou] art smitten	2.	[You] are smitten
3.	[He] is smitten	3.	[They] are smitten

* After *if, though, unless, lest, except, &c.*, the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should*, not *wouldst* and *would*.

† In Anglo-Saxon and early English this tense had also the meaning now expressed by the present perfect tense.

Present Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] am being smitten, &c. | 1. [We] are being smitten, &c. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] have been smitten | 1. [We] have been smitten |
| 2. [Thou] hast been smitten | 2. [You] have been smitten |
| 3. [He] has been smitten | 3. [They] have been smitten |

Present Perfect of continued action.

[I] have been being smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] was smitten | 1. [We] were smitten |
| 2. [Thou] wast smitten | 2. [You] were smitten |
| 3. [He] was smitten | 3. [They] were smitten |

Past Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] was being smitten, &c. | 1. [We] were being smitten, &c. |

Past Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] had been smitten | 1. [We] had been smitten |
| 2. [Thou] hadst been smitten | 2. [You] had been smitten |
| 3. [He] had been smitten | 3. [They] had been smitten |

Past Perfect of continued action.

[I] had been being smitten, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] shall be smitten | 1. [We] shall be smitten |
| 2. [Thou] wilt be smitten | 2. [You] will be smitten |
| 3. [He] will be smitten | 3. [They] will be smitten |

Future Imperfect Tense.

[I] shall be being smitten, &c.

*Future Perfect Tense.**

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. [I] shall have been | 1. [We] shall have been |
| 2. [Thou] wilt have been | 2. [You] will have been |
| 3. [He] will have been | 3. [They] will have been |

Future Perfect of continued action.†

[I] shall have been being smitten, &c.

Imperative Mood.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| Singular. | Plural. |
| Be [thou] smitten | Be [ye] smitten |

* This tense first makes its appearance in modern English.

† It may be doubted whether many examples of the passive perfects of continued action can be found in actual use.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense..*

After *if, that, though, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] be smitten	1.	[We] be smitten
2.	[Thou] be smitten	2.	[You] be smitten
3.	[He] be smitten	3.	[They] be smitten

Present Imperfect Tense.

After *if, that, though, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] be being smitten, &c.	1.	[We] be being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

After *if, that, though, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] have been smitten	1.	[We] have been smitten
2.	[Thou] have been smitten	2.	[You] have been smitten
3.	[He] have been smitten	3.	[They] have been smitten

Present Perfect of continued action.

[I] have been being smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

After *if, that, though, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] were smitten	1.	[We] were smitten
2.	[Thou] wert smitten	2.	[You] were smitten
3.	[He] were smitten	3.	[They] were smitten

Secondary or Conditional Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] should be smitten	1.	[We] should be smitten
2.	[Thou] wouldst be smitten†	2.	[You] would be smitten
3.	[He] would be smitten	3.	[They] would be smitten

Past Imperfect Tense.

After *if, though, &c.*

Singular.		Plural.	
1.	[I] were being smitten	1.	[We] were being smitten
2.	[Thou] wert being smitten	2.	[You] were being smitten
3.	[He] were being smitten	3.	[They] were being smitten

Secondary or Periphrastic Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

[I] should‡ be being smitten, &c.

* See note * on p. 94.

† See note * on p. 95.

‡ See note * on p. 95.

Past Perfect Tense.

The same in form as the Past Perfect Indicative.

Secondary, or Periphrastic Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

- [I] should have been smitten; [Thou] wouldst* have been smitten, &c.

Past Perfect of continued action.

The same in form as the Past Perfect of continued action in the Indicative Mood.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

When not preceded by Conjunctions.

I should* have been being smitten, &c.

- 258 In some of the regular verbs of the weak form the *d* at the end of the past indefinite and perfect participle is sounded like *t* (especially after a sibilant, as in *published*, *passed*, *incensed*, *pushed*; after *p*, as in *stepped*; and after *ck*, as in *picked*), and is sometimes replaced by *t*, as *spilt* for *spilled*, *dwelt* for *dwelled*, *learnt* for *learned*, *leapt* for *leaped*, *pent* for *penned*.

Some modern writers follow the older practice of writing *t* in all cases where the suffix has a sharp sound,† and write *pusht*, *past*, &c.

In the verbs *lay*, *say*, and *pay*, *laid* is written for *layed*, *said* for *sayed*, and *paid* for *payed*.

ADVERB.

- 259 When we think of a thing and connect with it the notion of some action or attribute, we often take account of the conditions or circumstances which modify or define the action or attribute, such as *place* ("He lives *here*"), *time* ("The man died *yesterday*"), *manner* ("The bird flies *swiftly*"), *degree* ("The house is *very* large," "The distance is *too* great"). The words by which these conditions or circumstances are denoted are called *adverbs*. ‡

* See note * on page 95.

† This, in reality, is not an innovation, and has much to recommend it. See an essay on "English Orthography," by the late Archdeacon Hare, in the "Philological Museum," vol. i.

‡ *Adverbium*, from *ad* (to) and *verbum* (verb), the name *adverb* implying a word attached to a verb.

260 *Definition.*—An **adverb** is a word which is used with verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs to show the conditions or limitations of place, time, manner, degree, cause, effect, &c., which modify or limit an action or attribute.* Adverbs are usually said to modify the words to which they are attached.

261 Adverbs may be classified in two ways, (1) according to their syntactical force, (2) according to their meaning.

262 As regards their syntactical force adverbs are of two kinds:—1. Simple Adverbs; 2. Conjunctive or relative Adverbs.

A *simple* adverb is one which does nothing more than modify the word with which it is used as, *yesterday* ("We arrived yesterday"); *now* ("I hear him now"); *hither* ("He is coming hither").

A *conjunctive* or *relative* adverb is one which not only modifies some verb, adjective, or other adverb in its own clause, but connects the clause in which it occurs with the rest of the sentence; as *when* ("Come when you are ready"); *whither* ("I know not whither he has gone").

263 A relative adverb always refers to some demonstrative word, expressed or understood, which stands to it in the same sort of relation that the *antecedent* stands in to a *relative pronoun*, as, "Come (*then*) when you are ready;" "There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose."

Care is necessary to distinguish connective *adverbs* from connective words which are not adverbs. Many conjunctions refer to time, place, cause, &c.; but they do not refer to these conditions in connexion with any verb or adjective of the clause which they introduce; but the whole of the subordinate clause has the force of an adverb attached to some word in the principal clause of the sentence, as, "He said that *because* he believed it." Here *because* does not, by itself, modify either the verb *believed* or the verb *said*, but the clause *because he believed it* is an adverbial clause modifying the verb *said*.

264 The following words are *conjunctive* or *relative* adverbs: *When, where, whither, whence, why, wherein, whereby, wherefore, whereon, whereat, whereout, whereafter, wherever, as†*

* It is self-evident that any word which fulfils the functions of an adverb must be an adverb. It may discharge other functions as well, but an *adverb* it is and must be. *When, where, &c.*, do not cease to be adverbs because they also connect a subordinate clause with a principal clause, any more than *who* and *which* cease to be pronouns because they also do the same. If *when, where, &c.* are to be called *conjunctions* because they join sentences, *who* and *which* must be called conjunctions also, for the same reason.

† *As* is a difficult word to deal with. It is both a simple or demonstrative adverb and a relative or connective adverb. It is, in fact, a compound of *all* and

(when it answers to *so*, *such*, or the demonstrative *as*),
than.*

265 With reference to their signification both simple and

so (like the German *also*), which has been shortened into *as*. The demonstrative sense of the word is therefore the original one, but like other demonstratives it was also used as a relative. The transition from the demonstrative to the relative sense, especially in the case of the strengthened form *al-so* (*all-so*), is easily understood. "Thou art me leof also mi fader" (*Layamon*), "Thou art dear to me as my father," is only a step removed from "Thou art dear to me. All so (dear), i.e., just so (dear) is my father." (See note on § 158). So "He wolde crie as he were wod" ("He would cry as if he were mad") is, "He would cry. All so (i.e., in this state of things, 'crying so') "he would be mad." As a demonstrative adverb it only qualifies adjectives or adverbs, and is followed by *as* used relatively. In practice it is often difficult to distinguish *as* from a relative pronoun (see § 187). However, let it be borne in mind that the *mode* or *manner* in which a thing is, may represent some quality which it possesses (as in Terence, *Phormio* iii. 2, 42. *Sic sum. Ego hunc esse aliter credidi. Ego isti nihilo sum aliter ac fui*). So in answer to the question, "Is that boy a dunce?" we may reply, "He is so." "Is that true?" "It is so." On a similar principle we may say, "He talked like a fool, as he was." "He seemed to be a foreigner, as in fact he was." (*Peregrinus, ut erat, visus est. "He looked like a foreigner, and so he was."*) If the force of these examples is well understood, there will not be much difficulty in the *as* which follows *such* and *same*. As, "His health is not such as it was." Demonstratively, "His health was so and so, it is not such now." "This is not the same as that [is]." "This is so and so, that is not the same;" the *manner* in which a thing *exists* being used to denote either a quality of the thing, or even the thing itself, since no two things can possibly exist in the same way. In old English *so* (*swa*) was used relatively. Its use as a connective adverb is still found in Shakespeare, as: "So I were out of prison and kept sheep, I should be as merry as the day is long" (*K. J.*, iv. 1). A great number of clauses beginning with *as* are elliptical. The construction of these will be discussed in the section on *Analysis* (§ 545, &c.). Writers who make *as* a pronoun would have to do the same with *wie* and *als* in German. (*Ein solcher wie er*.) It need hardly be added that sentences like, "He is the man as did this," "That is the horse as I saw yesterday," are utter abominations. From denoting the *mode* or *manner* of an action, *as* came to be used to mark the *time* of an action (e.g., "He arrived as I was setting out"), or even (in old writers), to denote *place* (e.g., "as ys bones lygeth" = "where his bones lie." (*Rob. of Gl.*) In "He grows wiser as he grows older," *as* is a relative adverb of *degree*. In this sense it may also give a concessive force to a clause, as "Rich as he is, one would hardly envy him."

* *Than* is often set down as a mere conjunction. This is a mistake. *Than* and *then* are only various forms of the same word (A.S. *þanne* or *þanne*). In Skelton (i. 79) we find, "*Whan* other are glad, *Than* is he sad." In later English the spelling *than* has been restricted to the adverb as it is used after comparatives. In Anglo-Saxon *than* (*þanne*) means "when," having the common relative force of *se*, *seo*, *paet* and its derivatives. In this sense it was used after comparatives to introduce the *standard of comparison*. "He came sooner than I expected," meant in fact, "When I expected [him to come soon] he came sooner." "John is taller than Charles," meant, "When Charles is tall (i.e., when the tallness of Charles is regarded) John is taller." "I have no other home than this," is, "When I have this, I have no other home." In course of time *than* ousted the dative case, which in Anglo-Saxon was used (like the ablative in Latin) to denote the standard of comparison. In Scotch *be* (= *by*) is used for a similar purpose, as, "Hey's yunger be onie o thaim," = "He's younger by (i.e., 'by the side of,' 'compared with') any of them." The curious provincial and Scotch use of *nor* after comparatives is quite different. "He is older nor John," possibly means "He is older, and not John." Clauses beginning with *than* are usually elliptical, and require a verb, either expressed or understood. From what has been said above, it appears that *than* is a connective adverb, qualifying (adverbially) this verb. *Quam*, in Latin, does not strictly answer to *than*, but is an adverb of *degree* (like the demonstrative *tam*), qualifying the adjective or adverb (expressed or understood) which follows it.

relative adverbs admit of being classified according to the ideas of time, place, &c., which they indicate.

1. *Adverbs of Time.* Now, then, after, before, presently, immediately, when, as (in such sentences as "As I was returning, I met him"), &c.

2. *Adverbs of Place and Arrangement.* Here, there, where, whither, wherever, whithersoever, thence, whence, wherein, whereat, whereupon, in, out, up, down, under, within, inside, without, backwards, firstly, secondly, &c.

3. *Adverbs of Repetition.* Once, twice, &c.

4. *Adverbs of Manner.* Well, ill, badly, how, however, so, as.

To this class belong the numerous adverbs formed from adjectives by the suffix *ly*, as *rightly*, *virtuously*, *badly*, &c.

5. *Adverbs of Quantity or Degree.* Very, nearly, almost, quite, eke (A.S. *ēac* = Germ. *auch*), much, more, most, little, less, least, all, half, any, only, as, the. These are only a particular kind of Adverbs of Manner.

6. *Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation.* Not, no, nay, aye, yea.

7. *Adverbs of Cause and Effect.* Therefore, wherefore, why.

266 As regards their origin, adverbs are for the most part formed by inflection, derivation, or composition, from nouns, adjectives, and pronouns.

267 **Adverbs derived from Nouns.**—Adverbial genitives* still remain in *needs* (= of necessity), *straightway*† (comp. *straightway*), *noways* (comp. *noway*), *always* (comp. *alway* = 'all the way'; A.S. *ealne weg*).

Some adverbial phrases, as 'Day and night,' 'Summer and winter,' 'One day,' were once genitives.

We have one adverbial dative left in *whilom* (A.S., *hwilum*), a dative plural, meaning 'at whiles' ('formerly,' 'on a time'). *Ever* and *never*‡ were once datives singular. The adverbs in *-meal* were compounds of the dative plural *maelum*, 'by portions'; as *piecemeal*, *inchmeal* (*Shaks.*, *Temp.* ii. 2), *limbmeal* (*Cymb.* ii. 4).

In § 372, 3, it is noticed that many adverbial adjuncts consist of a noun (which was originally in the accusative), qualified by an adjective. Several of these have hardened into compound adverbs,

* Adverbial genitives were common in Anglo-Saxon, as 'sôþes' (of a truth); 'nihtes' (by night); 'dæges' (by day, compare 'of an evening,' 'of mornings'); 'sylfwilles' (of free will), &c. Many of them have been replaced by of followed by the noun.

† Some of these are mixed up with the compounds of *wise*. Thus we have *lengthways* and *lengthwise*, *noway* and *nowise*.

‡ *Ever* is sometimes wrongly substituted for *never* in such expressions as "He told never so many lies," "Be they never so many," i.e., 'be they many, so that they were never so many.' In like manner people commonly say, 'Don't do more than you can help,' instead of 'Don't do more than you can't help' (*De Morgan*).

as *sometimes, always, otherwise, likewise* (=in like manner) *meantime, midway, yesterday* (A.S., *gestran dæg*), *straightway*. The adverbs *north, south, east, west, home*, were formerly accusative cases.

A large class of adverbial adjuncts consist of a noun preceded by a preposition (see § 372, 2). Some of these adverbial expressions have been welded together into adverbs. Thus, with the preposition *on* (weakened to *a*), we get *abed, asleep, afoot, ahead, astern, adrift, afloat, agape, amiss, away, aback, aboard,** &c.

In a similar way we get *indeed, betimes* (i.e., *by-times*), *besides, beforehand, forsooth, to-day, to-morrow, to-night, overboard,* &c.

A few adverbs are derived from nouns by the suffix *-long* (formerly *-linge*, answering to *-lings* in German), as *headlong* (formerly *heed-lynge*), *sidelong*, or *sidling†* (*sidelinge*). *Darkling* comes from an adjective.

- 268 **Adverbs derived from Adjectives.**—Specimens of the genitive suffix *s* appear in *else* (formerly *elles*, the genitive of a root *el* or *al*, meaning *other*), *once* (for *ones*, from *one*), *twice* (formerly *twyses*), *thrice* (formerly *thryses* or *thries*), *unawares, inwards, outwards,* &c. (by the side of the forms *inward, outward,* &c.). *Much* (as in *much greater* = *greater by much*) and *little* were datives (*miclum* and *lytlum*). Other adverbs were formerly accusative adjectives, as *all, enough, right, far, near, ere*. By prefixing a preposition to an adjective, and then dropping the old case suffix, we get such adverbs as *amid* (A.S., *on-middum*), *abroad, withal, aloud, awry, along, together.*§ We still say *in general, in vain,* &c.

- 269 The common adverbial suffix in Anglo-Saxon was *-e*,|| the omission of which reduced many adverbs to the same form as the adjectives from which they were derived¶. Thus, "He smot him harde" became "He smote him hard." "His spere sticode faeste" = "His spear stuck fast." "He weop bitterlice" = "He wept bitterly." It was thus that we got such adverbs as those in the phrases, 'to run *fast*'; 'right reverend'; 'sore displeased'; 'to talk like a fool'; 'to speak *loud*'; 'to sleep *sound*'; 'to live *godly*'; 'to come *early*'; 'you are very *likely* aware,' &c. In Anglo-Saxon there was a numerous class of secondary adjectives ending in *-lic*, the adverbs from which ended in *lice* (= *like* = *ly*), as *bitterlic*

* These must not be confounded with French compounds of *à* (= *ad*), such as *apart, apace, afloat, apiece, agog*. (See *Mätzner*, i. 441.)

† In *Morte d'Arthur*, ii. 236, we read "Felle downe noseling," i.e., 'on to his nose.' (*Halliwel*, s. v.)

‡ *Ward* (A.S. *weard*), is in reality an adjective (used only in compounds), and equivalent to the Latin *vergens*, 'inclining or stretching.'

§ Thus also were formed *anon* (= on *ane*, 'at one [time],' 'without interval.' The *nonce* is a corruption of *then once* (= *than and(s)*, 'that one purpose or time' *Koch*, ii. p. 309.)

|| Adverbs in *-e* are still found in Spenser.

¶ In old French there was an adverbial use of adjectives, which found its way into English. Hence we say, "You play me *false*," "That is *very* good," "Sure that cannot be true," "I *scarce* touched him," "That is *quite* true." It is often a question whether we are dealing with an adverb, or with an adjective used as the complement of the predicate, e.g., "Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast" (*Pope*); "Slow and *sure* comes up the golden year" (*Tennyson*).

(*bitterlike* = 'of a bitter sort'), *biterlice* = 'in a bitter sort of way.' As the adverbial suffix *-e* fell into disuse, the suffix *lice* (= *ly*) came to be treated as an ordinary adverbial suffix, the intervening adjective in *-lie* (*-ly*) being either suppressed or not formed.* Thus we now have 'bitter' (*adj*) and 'bitterly' (*adv.*), but not 'bitterlike'; and the suffix is appended to Romance as well as to Anglo-Saxon words, as *perfectly*, *divinely*.†

- 270 **Pronominal Adverbs.**—These are formed from the pronominal roots (*a*) by the suffix *-re*, marking place:—*here*, *there*, *where*;‡ (*b*) by the suffix *-ther*:—*hither*, *thither*, *whither*; (*c*) by the suffix *-n* (A.S., *ne*, the accusative masculine suffix§):—*then* or *than* (A.S., *þanne* or *þonne*), *when*; (*d*) by the compound suffix *-nce*, of which *ce* (= *es*) is the genitive suffix||:—*hence*, *thence*, *whence*;¶ (*e*) from the Anglo-Saxon instrumental case we get *the* (= *þy*), used before comparatives, as in 'The sooner the better'; *why* (= *hwi* or *hwy*) and *how* (= *hwa*). The neuter relative pronoun that is often used as a connective adverb. *What* has in old writers the sense of *why*? or in what degree? *Thus* is probably only a variety of *theos*, the instrumental case of the neuter *this*.
- 271 Many adverbs are identical in form with prepositions, as *by* ('he rode by'), *on* ('come on'), *off* ('be off'), *to* ('he came to'), *out* ('go out'), &c. *From*, as an adverb, survives in *to and fro*. The adverbial use of the words is in fact the older of the two (see farther on, under 'Preposition'). These adverbs combine with the pronominal adverbs, and form the compound adverbs *herein*, *thereby*, *herewith*, *hitherto*, *whereat*, *thereout*, *thenceforth*, &c.
- 272 **Adverbs of Negation.** The old English negation was *ne*, put before the verb, while *not* is put after it, when the verb is finite. *Not*

* We often have pairs of adverbs (commonly with a slight difference of meaning) formed with or without the intervention of the adjective in *lie*, as *light*, *lightly*; *right*, *rightly*; *hard*, *hardly*, &c.

Like was itself an adverb, as in "Like as a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear Him." Here *like* is repeated in *so*. In "He talks like a fool," *like* is an adverb, and is itself qualified adverbially (§ 372, 4) by '[to] a fool.' (Compare the dative after *similiter* in Latin.)

† When adverbs are formed from adjectives in *-le* preceded by a consonant, *e* is cut off and *y* only is added, as *able*, *ably*. *Y* is changed to *i* before *ly*, as in *bodily*, *merrily*, *daily*. Before *-ly* *i* is reduced to *l*, as *full*, *ful-ly*.

The *e* of *us* is elided, as in *truly*. *Ly* is not added to adjectives ending in *ly*. The adverbial suffix *-ly* was sometimes omitted, so that we get such phrases as 'grievous sick' (*Shakesp. R. II. i. 4*); 'exceeding great'; 'Thou didst it excellent' (*Tempest of Shrewsbury, i. 1. 89*); 'Does easy' (*Macb. II. 3. 148*); 'Less winning soft, less amiably mild' (*Pars. Lost. ii. 478*).

‡ These adverbs are often used for those in *-ther* by the best writers, as "There I throw my gage" (*Shakesp.*); "Your horse will carry you there" (*Scott*), &c.

§ Compare the Latin *tum* and *quum*.

¶ Hence, &c., are secondary forms. The older forms are *heonan*, *heonne*, *hethen*, *henne*, and then *hennis*, *hennes*, *hens*, hence; *hwaanon*, *wanne*, *whethen*, *whennes*; *thanon*, *thanne*, *thennes*. The *-n* or *-an* appears to mark motion from. (Compare the Latin *i-n-de*, *u-n-de*, and German *hi-n*.)

|| These adverbs followed the course of the corresponding pronouns. Those derived from *who* were at first interrogative and indefinite, and are still so used. They have the indefinite sense in *somewhere*, *anywhere*, *elsewhere*, *nowhere*, *somewhat*, *anyhow*. *Seldom* is possibly a corruption of *seld-hwonne* = *rarely-when* (*Koch, ii. p. 313*). *The* is both relative and demonstrative. Before *who* (*hwa*) and its derivatives were used as relatives, *there*, *then*, *than*, &c., had this sense.

is a shortened form of *nought* or *naught** (i.e., *ne-ð-wiht* = *n-ever a thing*), and consequently is a strengthened negative,† meaning 'in no degree,' or 'in no respect.' It was at first used to strengthen a previous negative,‡ just as Chaucer and other writers use *nothing* ("Nothing ne knew he that it was Arcite," *C. T.* 1521).

No and *nay* are only varieties of *nā* = *never*, which was used before comparative adverbs, as '*nā þý læs*' = *nevertheless*. *No* is now used before comparative adverbs and adjectives, as *no further*, *no bigger*. The form *No* is now employed as the absolute negative, as "Did you speak? No." The older form for this was *nay*. The affirmative particle *ay* or *aye* is the same as the Anglo-Saxon *ā* = *ever*. (*For aye* = *for ever*.) *Yea* (A.S. *geā*) is of the same origin as the German *ja*. *Yea* (A.S. *gese*) is a compound of *yea* or *ye* and the old subjunctive *si* or *sie* 'be it.' (*Mätzner*, i. 446.) *Ay* or *aye* and *nay* (= *ever* and *never*), as adverbs, once formed part of a phrase containing a verb which they qualified.§ In *yes* the traces of such a verb are still left.

- 273 Adverbs are sometimes used after prepositions, so as to serve as compendious expressions for a qualified substantive, as "I have heard that before *now*;" "He has changed since *then*." *Now* is equivalent to "the time *now* being;" *then* to "the time *then* being," &c. Adverbial phrases are also used thus, as "From *beyond the sea*."

Comparison of Adverbs.

- 274 Some adverbs (like adjectives) admit of degrees of comparison.

The comparative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that of two actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses the other with respect to

* In Anglo-Saxon the elements are found separate, as "He *ne mehte wiht gefeohtan*" 'He could not fight.' (*Beowulf*.) *Ne-ne* was equivalent to *neither -nor*. Byron now and then uses this double negative.

† We have the negative doubly strengthened in such phrases as 'not a bit,' 'not a jot,' 'not a whit' (where *whit* or *wiht* in fact occurs twice). *A bit*, *a jot*, *a straw*, &c., are accusatives of measure.

‡ In old English negatives were strengthened, not neutralized, by repetition: e.g., 'Ne geseah næfre nān man God' (*John* i. 18) 'No man hath not never seen God.' The use and position of *not* arose from the omission of the negative *ne*. Thus "Heo nefden noht ane mōder (*Layamon* i. 10) = "They *ne* had *not*, &c." became "They had *not*," &c.

§ In fact we must repeat with them the previous subject and predicate. Thus "Is not this true?—Ay, Sir," is at full length:—"Ay (i.e., ever) this is true." "Did you speak?—No;" is:—"No or nay (i.e., never) did I speak." Judged by the present usage of *not* and *no*, *not* should be used in all such contracted sentences as "Do you believe this or not?" But *or no* has also the sanction of the best writers, as "If you be maid or no" (*Shaksp. Temp.* I. 2); "Thou knowest alone whether this was or no" (*Tennyson*). The phrase 'whether or no' has established itself in common use. *Nā* and *nay* were similarly used in Anglo-Saxon and early English. (*Mätzner*, ii. p. 131.) Also *never* (= *nā* or *no*) is found for *not*, as "we witen never" = "we know not" (*Wiclif*; *John* ix. 21).

some circumstance of manner or degree by which they are both marked, but in different degrees. Thus, "John reads *ill*, but Thomas reads *worse*;" "I was but *little* prepared for that event, but he was *less* prepared."

The superlative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that out of several actions or qualities which are compared together one surpasses all the rest with respect to some circumstance of manner or degree by which they are all marked, but in different degrees; as, "Of all these boys, William writes the *worst*;" "John was less cautious than I, but Thomas was the *least* cautious of the three."

It is only some adverbs of *time*, *distance*, *manner*, and *degree* which admit of degrees of comparison.

- 275 The suffixes for comparison are now *-er* and *-est*. In Anglo-Saxon they were *-or* and *-ost*, which were appended to adverbs in *-e* and *-lic*, the final *e* of which was struck off. In modern English adverbs in *-er* and *-est* are usually formed from those adverbs which are the same in form as the corresponding adjectives, as *hard*, *harder*, *hardest*; *long*, *longer*, *longest*; *fast*, *faster*, *fastest*, &c. These suffixes are not now appended to adverbs in *-ly* (except *early*). Shakspeare uses *prouder*, *truer*, *easier*, &c. *Oftener* and *oftenest* are still common. The usual mode of indicating comparative and superlative is to prefix the adverbs *more* and *most*, as *wisely*, *more wisely*, *most wisely*. There are some instances in which the adverbial suffix *-ly* is appended to comparative and superlative adverbs, as *nearly*, *mostly*, *formerly*, *firstly*, *lastly*.

- 276 The following forms should be noticed.*

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
well	better	best
evil (<i>contr.</i> ill)	worse	worst
much	more	most
nigh or near	nearer	next
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
late	ere †	erst
[<i>adj.</i> <i>rathe</i> ‡]	later	last
	rather	

The comparatives *nether* (from *be-neath*), *upper*, *inner*, *outer*, or *utter*, *hinder* (*be-hind*), are used only as adjectives. Respecting the superlative forms, see § 117.

* Compare § 114 and the notes.

† In early English *ere* was sometimes spelt *or*, as: "We, or ever he come near, are ready to kill him" (*Acts* xxiii. 15). "or ever the silver cord be loosed" (*Eccles.* xii. 6).

‡ "The *rathe* (early) primrose." (*Milton, Lyc.*)

PREPOSITION.

277 Prepositions* are words placed before substantives, by means of which we show the relation in which things, and their actions and attributes, stand to other things. In the sentence, "I saw a cloud in the sky," *in* is a preposition, and marks the relation (of place) in which the *cloud* stands to the *sky*. In the sentence, "Tuesday comes after Monday," *after* is a preposition, and shows the relation (of time) in which the *coming* of Tuesday stands with respect to Monday. In "He struck the dog on the head," *on* is a preposition, and denotes the relation of the act of *striking* to the *head*. In "Tom peeped through the keyhole" *through* denotes the relation (of movement from one side to the other) of the *act of peeping* to the *keyhole*.† In "He is fond of music," *of* denotes the relation of *music* to the attribute *fond*. The substantive which follows a preposition is in the objective case, and is said to be governed by the preposition.

278 Things and their actions and attributes can only bear these relations to other *things*. Therefore a preposition can only be placed before a word that stands for a *thing*, that is, a *substantive*, or a substantive clause, which is equivalent to a substantive (comp. § 273), and can connect the substantive which follows it only with a substantive, a verb, or an adjective, since these alone stand for things and their actions and attributes.

Origin of Prepositions.

279 It has been already pointed out (see note on p. 27) that the original function of prepositions was to give precision and definiteness to the somewhat vague ideas of the relations of actions to things, which were expressed by the case-ending of nouns.‡ They exhibit three

* The word *preposition* gives a very imperfect description of this part of speech, as it merely implies 'placed before' (Latin *prae* = *before*, *positus* = *placed*), and is self-contradictory when (as is sometimes the case) a preposition comes *after* the word that it governs, as in 'the pen which I wrote with.'

† Some grammarians maintain the crotchet that a preposition invariably denotes the relation of a *thing* to a *thing*. If the above sentence is consistent with this definition, the difficulty of a camel's going through the eye of a needle is reduced to very manageable proportions. The *original* function of a preposition (as will be seen from what follows) was to define the relation of an *action* to a *thing* (§ 280). In a recent grammar a preposition is said to be "a word which shows the relation of one *noun* to another." Does "Jack in the box" imply that the *noun* Jack is in the *noun* box?

‡ I find that this view of the matter has the weighty sanction of *Mätzner* (l. p. 447).

stages of construction. (1) They were prefixed to the verb, which they qualified adverbially, forming in fact a compound with it. (2) They were detached from the verb, but not prefixed to the noun. At this stage it is often difficult to tell whether we are dealing with a preposition or an adverb. (3) They acquired the force of prepositions, and were prefixed to the nouns.* The first stage is represented by such a sentence as "Bigstandað me strange geneatas" (*Caedmon*) = 'Stout vassals bystand me'; the second stage by "He heom stod wið" (*Layamon*) = 'He them stood against,' or "Again the false paiens the Christen stode he by" (*P. Langtoft*) = 'Against the false pagans the Christians he stood by'; the third by "He stood by the Christians."

- 280 From this it is obvious that the primary function of prepositions is to show the relation between an action or attribute and a thing. It is only through the intervention of an attributive word, which was afterwards dropped, that they came to show the relation of one thing to another. "The book on the table" = "The book lying (or being) on the table," and so on.

- 281 As regards their etymology, prepositions may be arranged in the following classes :—

(1.) *Simple Prepositions.*

at	forth †	of or off	till
by	from ‡	on	to
for	in	through	up
			with

(2.) *Prepositions derived from Adverbs.* §

a. *By a comparative suffix.*

after	over	under
-------	------	-------

The dative which followed these comparatives was the dative marking the standard of comparison (*Koch*, ii. p. 321).

b. *By prefixing a preposition to an adverb.* ||

* The student of Greek will have no difficulty in tracing these three stages. The originally adverbial force of prepositions is unmistakably evident from the formation of the greater part of them, and is clearly seen in such words as *between*, *among*, &c.

† *Forth* is found as a preposition in Shakspeare: "They issue forth their city" (*Cor. i. 4*). It is sometimes strengthened by another preposition, 'from forth.' It is now commonly used only as an adverb.

‡ In Chaucer and Wiclif we find *fro*.

§ All these prepositions were originally adverbs.

|| Compare § 278. In these prepositions the steps of formation are perfectly clear. (1) From a simple adverbial or prepositional particle, such as *at* (*out*), or *aft* (*behind*) is formed an adverb (*atam*, *aftan*, &c.) by means of the old adverbial suffix *-an*, denoting locality. These adverbial forms sometimes acquire the force of prepositions in Anglo-Saxon, sometimes not. (2) This adverb is preceded by a preposition (*be* = *by* or *by*, *with*, and *on*, weakened to *a*, being those most frequently used), and a secondary compound is sometimes formed by prefixing *a* (= *on*). The resulting compounds are adverbs, and are used as such, but also acquire the force of prepositions.

abait (A.S. â-be-aftan)	beneath (A.S. be-neoðan)
above (A.S. â-be-ûfan)	beyond (A.S. be-geondan)
about (A.S. â-be-ûtan)	but* A.S. be-ûtan)
afore (A.S. on-foran) or æt-foran)	throughout (late A.S. þurh-ut)
before (A.S. bi-foran or be-foran)	underneath (A.S. under-neo-ðan)
behind (A.S. be-hindan)	within (A.S. wið-innan)
	without (A.S. wið-ûtan)

(3.) *Prepositions formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun or an adjective used substantively.*

aboard (= on board)	astride
across (from Fr. <i>croix</i>)	athwart (A.S. on þweorh <i>crooked</i>)
adown† or down (A.S. of dūne)	atween (see between)
against‡ (A.S. on-gegn, ongeān)	below
along (A.S. andlang §)	beside ¶ or besides (A.S. be-sidan)
amid or amidst (A.S. on middum)	between** (A.S. betweonum = 'by two')
among or amongst (A.S. on-gemang)	betwixt (A.S. betwih, betwix, or betwux)
anent (A.S. on-efen or on-emn = 'on a level,' 'over-against')	since ††
around or round	inside
aslant	outside
	withal ‡‡

Aloft (on lyfte = in the air) and *abreast* are used now and then as prepositions.

* This old preposition is often wrongly taken for the conjunction *but*. It means literally 'on the outside of,' and thence 'without' or 'except.' Thus "Būtan nettum huntian ic mæg" = 'I can hunt without nets' (*Coll.*) "Ealle būtan anum" (*Beow.* 706) = 'all but one.' This is the regular construction in Anglo-Saxon after *all* (*eal*). Phrases like 'all or none but he' are ungrammatical. In Chaucer we find "But meat or drinke she dressed her to lie in a dark corner of the house alone." The motto of the Duke of Sutherland is, "Touch not the cat but the glove" (*Koch*, ii. p. 386). *But* may be followed by the infinitive without *to*, as "He did nothing but laugh." Respecting the cases in which *but* appears to mean *only*, see § 606.

† Literally, 'off the hill.' Dūn = hill.

‡ In *against*, *amidst*, and *amongst* the *s* is the adverbial genitive suffix (§ 268). The *t* is an offgrowth of the *s*. *Again* is the older form.

§ From the old Anglo-Saxon preposition *and* = *opposite*, or *in presence of*, which we have in *an-swer*.

|| *Gemang* in A.S. means an assemblage or multitude.

¶ *Beside* has now reference to place, as 'A house beside a river.' *Besides* means 'in addition to,' as "Besides the profit there is the honour." This distinction is modern, and is purely arbitrary. *On-this-side* is used as a preposition, like *beside*, *inside*, and *outside*.

** *Between* comes from the numeral adjective *twæon* (= Lat. *binus*), a derivative from *two* or *twi* (= *two*). *Betwix* was formed from the root *twi*. To this was added the adverbial genitive suffix *s* (*betwix*), and subsequently the offgrowth *t* (§ 218). The parts of the compound *betweonum* might be separated. 'Be sæm twæonum' (*by the lakes twain*) = 'between the lakes.'

†† *Since* or *sinnes* is formed by the suffix *-es* from *sin* ("Sin thilke day," = since that day—Chaucer), a shortened form of the adverb *siðan* (*sithen*), derived from *sið* = *later*.

‡‡ Always placed at the end of the clause.

(4.) *Prepositions formed by prefixing an adverbial particle to a preposition.*—

into	until*	upon	without
onto	unto	within	

(5.) From the adjective *weard* (= Lat., *vergens*), preceded by the adverb *to*,† we get in Anglo-Saxon the adjective *toward*, meaning 'approaching, future.'‡

Toward and *towearde* (formed by the genitive inflection, (see § 268), were used as adverbs, and then acquired the force of prepositions. *Nigh* (*neah*), *near*, *nearer*, and *next*, are adjectives used first as adverbs and then as prepositions. (See § 114.) When used as adverbs they are followed by *to*. *Ere* (A.S., *ær*) is a comparative adjective, used first adverbially and then as a preposition. *Past*, once an attributive participle, is now a preposition, as "He went past the house."

- 282 In Anglo-Saxon passive and other impersonal verbs might be used without a subject of any kind expressed (§ 382), simply to affirm that an *action takes place*, without referring it to any agent. Participles are often employed impersonally in exactly the same manner. As we may have a nominative absolute consisting of a participle qualifying a substantive (see § 372, 5), so we may have a participle used absolutely without any substantive for it to qualify, as: "Speaking generally, this will be found true"; "Barring accidents, we shall arrive to-morrow." Participles thus used are sometimes wrongly set down as prepositions, as *concerning*, *considering*, *respecting*, &c. In some cases these active participles have supplanted passive participles which qualified the noun. Thus, "considering his conduct" was "his conduct considered," just as we still say, "All things considered." *Notwithstanding*, *pending*, and *during* are participles qualifying the noun that follows in the nominative absolute. *Notwithstanding* is sometimes placed after the noun, especially in legal phraseology. *Save* (Fr. *sauf*) and *except* are of French origin, and are remnants of Latin ablatives absolute in which *salvo-* and *excepto-* were used. In old English, *out-taken* is found for *except*. In Shakspere we still find *excepted*: "Always excepted my dear Claudio." As both the nominative and the objective case are used in the absolute construction (§ 372, 5), *save he* and *save him* are both allowable.

- 283 The principal relations which prepositions indicate are those of *place*, *time*, and *causality*.||

* The old Gothic preposition *und* (= German *bis*) appeared in Anglo-Saxon as *oð* (just as the Gothic *tunthus* became *toth* or *tooth*). The older form maintained its ground in *und-til* (until) and *und-to* (unto) = 'all the way to.'

† The adjective (or adverb) *ward* (*weard*) forms various compound adverbs, as *northward*, *heavenward*, *Godward*. These are sometimes preceded by the preposition *to* as *to Godward* (2 Cor. iii. 4).

‡ Hence 'inclining to,' 'favourable.' The opposite of this is 'froward' (= *fromward*), and the negative of it 'untoward.' In old English *fromward* is used as a preposition, meaning 'away from.'

§ Sometimes these participles (as, e.g., *respecting*) have retained or acquired a shade of meaning peculiar to themselves.

|| By *causality* is meant the cause, reason, or purpose of any action or event. When we say, *full of water*, *of* marks the cause of the fullness.

Prepositions were first used to express relation in *space*, then they were applied to relation in *time*, and lastly were used metaphorically to mark relations of *causality* or *modality*. The following examples will show the course of these changes.

- 284 **By** means—(1) 'Alongside of,' or 'close to,' in connexion either with rest or with motion, as 'Sit *by* me'; 'The path runs *by* the river'; 'We went *by* your house'; 'He lives *by* himself,' *i.e.*, 'with himself as his only neighbour'; 'To put a thing *by*' is to put it somewhere *near*, or *by our side*, not *in front*; hence, *out of the way*, just as we say 'to put *aside*.' If a man swears *by* an altar or a relic, it is natural that he should place his hand on it, or at least go close up to it. (2) If I arrive *by* ten o'clock, the time of my arrival is *close to*, or *just before*, ten o'clock. *By* and *by* properly denotes a time *close to* the present.* 'Day *by* day,' implies that one day is *next to* the other without interval. (3) It is natural to seek the doer or instrument of an act in close neighbourhood to the locality of the action. Hence *by* came to denote the agent † or instrument. "Abel was killed *by* Cain," means literally 'Abel was killed beside Cain.' "He is older *by* two years," implies that the excess of age is caused by two years.

FOR in Anglo-Saxon means 'in front of,' 'before,' with reference both to place and to time (compare the Latin *pro*). From the idea of *standing in front of* came first that of *defending*, as when we say 'To fight for one's king; and then that of *representing*, or *taking the place of* (compare *avri* and *pro*). Thus an advocate appears for his client, or one person is 'taken *for* another'; or is 'responsible *for* another.' This idea of *substitution* or *exchange* often occurs, as in 'To die *for*'; 'To exchange, barter, or sell *for*'; 'Eye *for* eye.' *Exchange* passes into the sense of *requital*, as 'He was punished *for* the crime.' The idea of 'in return or exchange *for*' underlies such phrases as 'grateful *for*,' 'sorry *for*,' 'to work *for*,' 'to seek *for*,' 'to wait *for*,' (*work*, &c. being the *price* in exchange for which the object is secured). Hence *for* comes to signify '*purpose*' in general. 'He did this *for* love of me' means 'in *presence of* his love of me as a *stimulating motive*.' 'In presence of' may pass into the meaning 'in spite of' (just as when we say 'He persevered *in the face of* all obstacles'), as in "For all his wealth, he is unhappy." The idea of *interest* or *benefit* may spring out of that in which *for* denotes *place of*, and thence *on behalf of*, *to the advantage of*.

Of and **off** are only various modes of writing and pronouncing the same word. It is only in later English that *off* has been restricted to particular shades of the general meaning. The word indicates *movement* or *separation from* something, or the starting-point from which some action proceeds, as in 'Get *off* that chair'; 'A long way *off* the mark'; 'he went out *of* the room'; 'He comes *of* a good stock'; 'To buy *of* a person'; 'To expect something *of* a person'; 'Of a child,' *i.e.* 'from the time when he was a child.' A vessel is *off* the coast when it is at a short distance *from* it. The idea of *separation* underlies all such phrases as 'to cure *of*'; 'to clear *of*';

* Chaucer speaks of "two yonge knightes ligging *by* and *by*," *i.e.*, "lying *side by side*."

† Compare the provincialism "That's all *along* of you."

'to cleanse *of*'; 'to deprive *of*'; 'to acquit *of*'; 'free *of*'; 'destitute *of*.' 'To beware *of*' implies 'keeping aloof from.' If a thing 'smells *of* musk,' or 'tastes *of* onions,' the smell or taste comes *from* the musk or onions.

That which comes from, or is taken from a thing, was a part of it, or belonged to it in some way. Hence spring two meanings. 1. *Of* is used in the *partitive* sense, as in 'A piece *of* cheese'; 'One *of* the men'; 'To partake *of*,' &c. 2. *Of* denotes *possession*, as in 'The house of my father,' or marks that an attribute *pertains* to something, as in 'The brightness of the sun.' It thus becomes the general equivalent of the genitive or possessive case.

A thing is made *from* the material of which it is composed. Hence we say, 'A bar *of* iron'; 'A book *of* poetry'; 'A stack of corn'; 'A pint *of* beer.' From denoting the *material* of a thing, *of* passes on to denote the constitution or characteristic of a thing in general, as in 'A man *of* high rank'; 'A person *of* great wealth.'

A man's works or productions come *from* him. Hence we speak of 'a play *of* Shakspeare'; 'a symphony *of* Beethoven,' &c. *Of* also marks generally the *source from which* an action proceeds. Hence it denotes the agent or means, as 'He was led *of* the Spirit'; 'Tempted *of* the devil'; 'The observed *of* all observers,' i.e., 'The person observed *by* all observers.' 'Full *of* water,' i.e., 'Filled *with* water.'

A result springs *from* a cause. Hence *of* marks the *cause or ground* of an action or feeling, that which excites it; as in 'To die *of* a broken heart'; 'To do a thing *of* one's free will,' 'of right,' or 'of necessity'; 'To be sick *of* a fever.' 'The love *of* money' is 'the love excited by money,' and so 'directed towards it.' So 'Fond *of*'; 'weary *of*'; 'guilty *of*'; 'proud *of*'; 'conscious *of*'; 'sensible *of*,' &c., denote emotions *caused by*, or *springing from* something.

'I heard *of* his death' marks that 'his death' was the starting-point of the news that came to me. Hence *of* comes to mean *concerning* or *respecting* in a variety of phrases. If we 'speak *of* Cicero,' Cicero is the starting-point of our speech. 'A copy *of* a thing' is 'a copy taken *from* it.' A man is 'strong *of* arm' when his strength proceeds *from* his arm. 'He lived there upwards *of* a year,' means 'during a certain period reckoned *from* the end of the year.'

To (spelt too in some of its adverbial uses) denotes the point to which a movement is directed (as in 'go *to*'), or the proximity which is the result of the movement (as in 'close *to*'), or (metaphorically) the object or purpose of some action (as in 'He came *to* see me'; 'They came *to* dinner'), or that *to which* the influence of some action or attribute *extends*, and which is therefore affected by it (as in 'That is a pleasure *to* me'; 'This is painful *to* me'). 'Give him a shilling and a loaf too,' means 'Give him a loaf *in addition to* the shilling.' 'That is too bad' means 'something *in addition to* bad, something more than merely bad.'

With is a shortened form of the Anglo-Saxon adverb *wiðer*, formed by the comparative suffix *ther* (§ 106, note), from an ancient root *wi* or *vi*, denoting *separation*. The ancient meaning of *with* (*wið*) is

from,* which we still preserve in *withhold* and *withdraw*. The notion of *separation* passed into that of *opposition*, from which *with* derived its ordinary Anglo-Saxon meaning of 'against,' still maintained in '*withstand*,' '*to be angry with*'; "*weigh oath with oath*" (*Shakspeare*), i.e., '*weigh oath against oath*,' &c. *Opposition* implies *proximity*, and *proximity* suggests *association*, and so *with* came by its modern sense, as in '*Come with us*.' In this sense it denotes *attendant circumstances* (as in '*I will come with pleasure*'). Among the attendant circumstances of an action is the instrument with which it is performed. Hence another of the common meanings of *with*. All its other senses are only modifications of these two. In the case of the other prepositions, their various metaphorical meanings are easily deduced from the primary *relation in space* which they denote. *With* has supplanted the old preposition *mid* (= German *mit*).

Most of the above words are adverbs as well as prepositions. The mode in which they are used will always determine which part of speech they are. When they are prepositions there is always a substantive, expressed or understood, which they govern. (But compare § 273.) In, "*He laid one book above the other*," *above* is a preposition. In, "*One was below, the others above*," *below* and *above* are adverbs.

CONJUNCTION.

285 **Conjunctions** are so called because they join words and sentences together (Lat. *con* = 'together,' *jungo* = 'I join'); but a word is not necessarily a conjunction because it does this. *Who*, *which*, and *that* are connective words which are pronouns. (See § 408.) *When*, *where*, *whither*, *as*, *than*, &c., are connective words which are adverbs (§§ 262, 263).

286 **Definition.**—Conjunctions are connective words, which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification.

287 Prepositions show the relation of one *notion* to another. Conjunctions show the relation of one *thought* to another (see § 294). Hence conjunctions for the most part† join one sentence to another.

* "*He gedælde lif wið lîce*," "*He separated life from [the] body*" (*Beowulf*, 733).

† The single exception is the conjunction *and*, which, besides uniting one sentence to another, may unite words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence, as in "*Two and three make five*," where *two* and *three* stand in the same relation to the verb *make*: "*Tom sat between John and James*," where *John* and *James* are in the same relation to *sat between*. It is easy to see that in such cases *and* does not show a connexion between the notions expressed by '*two*' and '*three*,' or '*John*' and '*James*,' but in each case shows the connexion between two thoughts, namely, that *two* has to do with the making of *five*, and that *three* has to do with the making of *five*; that *Tom* has a relation of position to *John*, and that *Tom* has a relation of position to *James*. Some grammarians will have it that in all such cases two co-ordinate sentences are contracted (§ 445) into one, but it is

- 288 As regards their syntactical use conjunctions may be divided into two classes:—1. Co-ordinative Conjunctions; 2. Subordinative Conjunctions.*

As regards their *signification*, conjunctions may be thus classified:—

1. *Simple*:—and, both, that.
2. *Adversative* or *exceptive*:—but.
3. *Alternative*:—either—or; neither—nor.
4. *Causal*:—because, since, as, for, lest.
5. *Hypothetical*:—if, an, unless, without, except.
6. *Concessive*:—though, although, albeit.
7. *Temporal*:—after, before, ere, till, until, now, while, since.

- 288b 1. Co-ordinative conjunctions are those which unite either co-ordinate clauses (§ 402), or words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence.

The co-ordinative conjunctions are *and*, *but*, *either*, *or*, *neither*, *nor*, *whether*, *both*.

Either—or, *neither—nor*, *whether—or*, *both—and*, are used in pairs as correlatives. In old English *ne—ne* were used for *neither—nor*.

Both (A.S., *bá-twá*, a compound of the neuter plural of *begen* = 'both' and *twegen* = 'two') is simply a numeral adjective (as in "They were both killed"), which has come to be used as a conjunction. The pronoun *whether* (see § 155) in like manner is now used as a conjunction to introduce one of two alternative indirect interrogatives (as "I will tell you whether it is true or not"), or one of two alternative hypotheses (as "I will do it, whether (= either if) you like it or not").

Or is a contracted form of the old pronoun *other*† (A.S., *awðer*, *aðor* or *aðer*), which was used as an *alternative* conjunction.

quite futile to attempt to cut the preceding into separate sentences. To say 'Two make five and three make five,' or 'Tom sat between John and Tom sat between James,' is sheer nonsense, and it is quite inadmissible to substitute some other verb for *make*, or some other preposition for *between*. Grammatical analysis has to deal with the expressions before us, not with something else that we are told to substitute in their place. Some grammarians adopt the eccentric idea that in cases like the above "and does the work of a preposition" (= *with*). They should at least be prepared to maintain that "Tom and me took a walk" is good English. To say that 'Prepositions connect words and conjunctions connect sentences,' is neat and terse in form, but imperfect, inexact, and misleading in sense. The statement in § 287 contains all that is true in it, and excludes what is inexact and erroneous.

* Most grammarians distribute conjunctions into *copulative* and *disjunctive* conjunctions. A *copulative* conjunction is a joining word which couples together. A *disjunctive* conjunction is a joining word which disjoins. A person need be very keensighted to see the sense or utility of this classification.

† This word is not the same as *other* = the Gothic *anþar*. There were two compounds of 'hwæðer' in Anglo-Saxon, 'a-ge-hwæðer,' from which we get *either* (which properly means *both*, see §§ 173, 175), and 'a-hwæðer,' from which came the pronoun *anþer* or *other*, and its negative *næðer*, *nother*, or *nouther*, which have still a provincial existence. This (formed without the particle *ge*, which gives the idea of combination) is the proper *alternative* pronoun, but has been supplanted by *either*.

The co-ordinative use of *but* sprang out of its subordinative use (note on § 289), in which it introduced an exception to a general statement. From that it came to denote *contrast*, and so acquired the force of a co-ordinative and adversative conjunction, and supplanted the old word 'ac.'

- 288c 2. Subordinative conjunctions are those which unite subordinate clauses (see § 412) to the principal clause of a sentence. They never couple words only.

The subordinative conjunctions are *that, as, if, an, lest, unless, though, although, but, after, ere,* before, for, till, until, without, because, now, while, albeit, since, except*.

- 289 *That* was originally the neuter demonstrative pronoun, used to point to the fact stated in an independent sentence, as "It was good; he saw *that*." By an inversion of the order this became "He saw *that*, (namely) it was good," and so passed into the form, "He saw that it was good," where *that* has been transferred to the accessory clause, and become a mere sign of grammatical subordination. A subordinate clause of this kind becomes the equivalent of a substantive (see § 403). It may be used as the subject of a verb (e.g., "That he has gone away is certain"), as the object of a verb (e.g., "I know that he said so"), or in apposition to a substantive or a demonstrative pronoun.†

- 290 One function of the adverb *as* was to give a relative force to the

* *Ere* is often written or in old writers (1276).

† E.g., "Is þæt sægð þæt hi cōmon," "That is said, that they come" (*Bed. i. 1*). It was through the intervention of this second *that*, that substantive clauses were at first used after prepositions, as "Ic cwime fār þam þæt he gað," "I will come ere that, that he goes"; "Se apostol hine swang for þan þæt he wolde Godes hyrde forlétan," "The apostle chastised him for that, that he wished to abandon God's flock." "Ealle þe þing andon on þinre handa būtan þam anum, þæt þu þine hand on him ne astrecca," "All those things are in thine hand but that one, that thou stretch not thine hand upon him" (*Job i. 12*). Here the accessory clause is in apposition to the demonstrative governed by the preposition. Next the conjunctive 'þæt' was weakened to 'þe,' and attached to the preceding demonstrative, which was thus made relative or connective in its force (see note on 1250), and so in its turn passed over to the accessory clause; as "Ær þam þe se coce crāwe," 'ere that the cock crow.' The dropping of 'þe' gave rise to such forms as "For þam heora ys heofena rice" = 'for that yours is the kingdom of heaven.' The use of the indeclinable *that* in place of the inflected forms of the pronoun, or the omission of the inflected form and the retention of the conjunction 'þæt' (as in "Hit ne mæg tō nāhte būtan þæt hit sy āt-aworpen," 'It is good for naught but that it should be cast out,' *Matt. v. 13*), gave rise to such constructions as "In that He Himself hath suffered, being tempted," &c. (*Heb. ii. 18*); "I would have come, but that I was unwell"; "Before that certain came from James he did eat with the Gentiles" (*Gal. ii. 12*), &c. In these cases *in, but, before, &c.*, are still prepositions which are followed by a substantive clause. Lastly, the conjunction that disappeared, leaving such constructions as "Ær he biſcop wære," 'ere he was bishop'; "Næbbe ge lif on eow būtan ge etan min flesc," 'Ye have not life in you but (= except) ye eat My flesh' (*John vi. 53*); "He went away before I came," &c., in which the prepositions *ere, but, before, &c.*, have absorbed the conjunctive particle, and so may at last be regarded as being themselves conjunctions. (Compare what is said respecting *because, while, &c.*) Some grammarians prefer to regard them as being still prepositions followed by a substantive clause, which has dropped the *that* (§ 416). In the case of *būtan*, an ellipse of the verb gave such constructions as: "Nān man nāt būtan fæder āna" (= 'No man knoweth but my father only'), for "būtan þæm þæt fæder āna wāt." This may justify (but does not necessitate) such constructions as "Nobody knows it but I."

indefinite and demonstrative adverbs *when, where, then, there* (see note on § 158). Thus were formed *when-as* and *whereas*.* Not only, however, were *when* and *where* used without the *as*; *as* might be used without the *when* or *where*, as "I met James *as* I was coming hither"; "*þe quer as ys bones lyggeð*" (= *where his bones lie*). From denoting *place*, 'whereas' came to indicate *attendant circumstances*. Thus "I held my tongue *whereas* the rest kept talking," = "I held my tongue [in circumstances] *in which* the rest kept talking." The adverbial sense of *whereas* has now become so weakened, that it is commonly regarded as a mere conjunction. It is sometimes in this character replaced by *as*. Thus "*As* you say so, I must believe it." *As* is also used in the sense of *as if*, or *as though* ("His heart throbbed *as if* it would have burst," *Scott*).

291 If (A.S. *gif*) is connected by the best authorities with the Gothic *ida* or *jaba*.† It is sometimes strengthened by *and*, which once (like *et* and *kai*) had the sense of *also* or *even*. *And if* = *even if*. In Anglo-Saxon there was also a particle *ono*, which had a conditional force. This probably is the source of *an*, meaning *if*, as in "He shall *an* it please him" (*Hamlet*, iv. 6.) *An* and *and* are sometimes confounded.

291b *Least* is the same as the superlative adverb *least*. In Anglo-Saxon we find 'læs' (*less*) preceded by 'þy' (the ablative of *þæt*), and sometimes followed by 'þe', which gave a relative or subordinative force to the phrase, 'þy læs,' or 'þy læs þe,' being the equivalent of the Latin *quominus* = "that by so much the less."‡ The superlative was used in like manner, 'þe laeste þe' is found (*Sax. Chr.* 894, F.) = *quo minime*. "Flee lest he slay thee," means "Flee, *that so least* he may slay thee." We sometimes find *lest that*, where *that* (like *þe*) gives a subordinating force to *lest* (§ 158, note).

291c *Unless* is a compound of *on* and the comparative *less*, and means much the same as *minus* in arithmetic. "He will be ruined unless you help him", means 'Subtract [from all the circumstances of the case] your helping him, and he will be ruined.'

291d *Though* was originally an adversative adverb, meaning 'nevertheless.' It is still so used, as: "You are still in time; make haste though." To give it a subordinative power *þe* or *that* was originally appended, but afterwards dropped.

291e The mode in which the prepositions *but, after, ere, before, for, till, & until, and without* became conjunctions has been already explained (§ 289, note), and is illustrated by the use of *because, now, and while*.

Because was originally 'by the cause that,' *while* was 'the while that' (*while* = *hwil* = 'time'), *that* introducing a substantive clause in apposition to the noun *cause* or *while*. When *that* was dropped, its subordinative power passed to the preceding phrase, which hardened into a conjunction. || *Now that* became the conjunction *now* in a similar way. *Since* is formed by the adverbial genitive suffix

* "There, whereas all the plagues and harms abound" (*Spenser, F.Q. IV. i. 20*).

† Not with the verb *give*, though at first it seems natural to regard it as the imperative of that verb, of which the Scotch *gin* (= *g'en* = *given*, i.e., granted) is the participle.

‡ E.g., "*Wariað eow, þy-læs eower heortan gehefode syn*," 'Beware, *that by so much the less* (= *lest*) your hearts be over-charged' (*Luke xxi. 34*).

§ *Till* and *until* were used in the Northern dialect for *to* and *unto*. When they passed into general use they became restricted to relations of time.

|| *Whilst* was formed by the adverbial genitive suffix *s* and its offgrowth *t*.

(*se* = *s* or *es*) from *sin*, a shortened form of *sithen*, from *sið þam* = 'after that.'* **Albeit** (*all-be-it*) is a short concessive or imperative sentence. **Except** at first formed a nominative (or objective) absolute with the following clause. When *that* was dropped, *except* became a conjunction.

- 291 *f* Many words which are frequently set down as conjunctions are really simple adverbs, not having even a connective force, except in so far as every demonstrative word, which refers to something that has already been said, causes a connexion in thought,† though a mere demonstrative is not, *grammatically speaking*, a connective word. Such words as *therefore*, *still*, *yet*, *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, *consequently*, *however*, *hence*, *accordingly*, *likewise*, *also*, are adverbs, inasmuch as they indicate some of the conditions or circumstances under which the predicate of the clause to which they belong is asserted of the subject. (See further in the Syntax, under the head of *Collateral Sentences*, § 408.)

INTERJECTION.

- 293 Interjections are words which are used to express some emotion of the mind, but do not enter into the construction of sentences; as, *Oh! O! Ah! Ha! Alas! Fie! Pshaw! Hurrah!*

In written language interjections are usually followed by what is called a mark of admiration (!). The word *interjection* comes from the Latin *inter*, 'between,' and *jacio*, 'I cast.'

* The derivation of the conjunction is slightly different from that of the preposition (§ 281).

† As "He suddenly lost all his fortune. *This* was a great blow to him." No one would treat *this* as a relative or connective pronoun in such a sentence. The same is obviously true of such a sentence as, "He was idle. For that reason he did not succeed." But put, instead of *for that reason*, its exact grammatical equivalent *therefore*, and half the writers of grammars will tell us that *therefore* is a conjunction.

A proper attention to the nature and use of adverbs will enable us to correct mistakes on the subject which are to be found in the grammars of most languages. Even the best Latin and Greek grammars are not free from them. Thus, *quum* in Latin is an adverb, not a conjunction, even when, for the sake of convenience, we translate it by *since*. The explanation is not that *quum* is sometimes an adverb and sometimes a conjunction, but that the Romans used a word meaning *when* in cases where we use the word *since*. *Quum* is in form and meaning the correlative of *tum*, and, like it, refers both to *time* and to *attendant circumstances*. So *ut* = *as*, *ut* = *ho*, *ut* = *that*, *ut* = *when*, is the same part of speech in all these uses, and to a Roman ear conveyed in all cases the same fundamental meaning. The adverbial force of *ut* may be indicated by treating it as other relatives are often treated in translation, namely, by substituting for it a demonstrative with a conjunction. As *qui* = *and he*, so *ut* = *and so*. Thus, *tam validus est ut nemo eum superare possit*, "He has such and such a degree of strength, and so no one can overcome him." The *ut* refers to the *circumstances under which* the verb *possit* is affirmed of the subject. To set down phrases like *howbeit*, *in as far as*, &c., as *compound conjunctions*, is quite inadmissible. Each word in such phrases admits of being parsed separately.

GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS AND FORMS.

294 The pupil who has carefully studied the definitions of the Parts of Speech already given, will be prepared to comprehend the classification of the constituent parts of language contained in the annexed table.

Language is made up of words and forms. By these we express all the conceptions that the mind is capable of forming. All thought—and, consequently, all speech—is about something. The basis of every thought, therefore, is the notion of a *thing*, that is to say, of whatever we can make an object of thought. The words that stand for things are *nouns* and *pronouns*.

Besides things themselves, we form conceptions of the actions and attributes of things. The words that express these are *adjectives* and *verbs*. Both these classes of words express attributive notions, the difference between them being that the verb expresses an attribute together with the idea of assertion or predication; the adjective does not *assert* the connection between the thing and its attribute, but *assumes* it; or (to borrow a metaphor from mechanics) the adjective is a *static attributive*, the verb is a *dynamic attributive*. The adjective is a sort of weakened verb.

Further, besides things and their attributes, we form conceptions of the limitations of these attributes—the mode, manner, time, place, or other *conditions* under which the attribute is regarded as attached to the thing. These conditions are expressed by *adverbs*.

These are all the simple notions that we can form. But when we think, we combine notions together, and this combination is represented in language partly by words called relational words, that is, words that denote the relation between notions and thoughts, and partly by grammatical forms and inflexions. There are two sorts of relational words, prepositions and conjunctions. Prepositions only denote the relation of one *notion* to another. (See Definition of Preposition, § 277.) Conjunctions denote the relation of one *thought* to another, a *thought* being already the combination of at least two notions. The relation of a verb to its subject; of an adjective to a noun; of an object to the word that governs it; and of an adverbial adjunct to an attributive word, is indicated by grammatical forms and inflexions.

TABLE OF THE CONSTITUENT ELEMENTS OF THOUGHT AND SPEECH.

CONCEPTIONS.		Notional Words		Relational Words	
A. SIMPLE NOTIONS	1. Notions of Things	<i>expressed by</i>		{ 1. Nouns. 2. Pronouns.	
	2. Notions of Attributes of Things ...	<i>expressed by</i>		{ 1. Verbs. (Assertive or Dynamic Attributives.) 2. Adjectives. (Assumptive or Static Attributives.)	
	3. Notions of the Modes or Conditions of Attributes.....	<i>expressed by</i>		Adverbs.	
B. CONCEPTIONS OF RELATION	1. Of Notions to Notions	<i>expressed by</i>		{ 1. Inflections. 2. Prepositions.	
	2. Of Thoughts to Thoughts	<i>expressed by</i>		Conjunctions.	

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION.

- 295 The words of which the English language is composed may be divided into two classes, *primary* words, and *secondary* or *derivative* words.

A word is a *primary* word when it does not admit of being resolved into simpler elements; as, *man*, *horse*, *run*.

A word is a *secondary* word when it is made up of significant parts, which exist either separately or in other combinations.

- 296 Secondary words are formed partly by *Composition*, partly by *Derivation*.

COMPOSITION.

- 297 A word is a *compound* word when it is made up of two or more parts, each of which is a significant word by itself; as, *apple-tree*, *tea-spoon*, *spend-thrift*.

- 298 All compounds admit of being divided primarily into two words; but one of these may itself be a compound word, so that the entire word may be separated into three or four words; as *handicraftsman* (made up of *man* and *handicraft*, *handicraft* being itself made up of *hand* and *craft*); *midshipman* (made up of *man* and *midship*, *midship* being itself made up of *mid* and *ship*). In such cases the subordinate compound is usually the first of the two words into which the whole is divisible.

- 299 In most compound words it is the first word which modifies the meaning of the second. (The second denotes the *genus*, the first distinguishes the *species*). *Rosebush* means a particular kind of *bush*, namely one that bears roses. A *hay-cart* is a certain kind of *cart*, namely, one for carrying hay. The accent is placed upon the modifying word.

A.—Compound Nouns.

- 300 Compound Nouns may be divided into the following classes:—

1. Those which consist of a noun preceded and modified by a noun, as *haystack*, *inkstand*, *teaspoon*, *cornfield*, *turning-lathe*, *milking-stool*, *riding-whip*.*

2. Those which consist of a noun preceded and modified by an

* The word ending in *ing* in these compounds is the *gerund*, not the imperfect participle. (See § 300.)

adjective, as *roundhead*, *bluebeard*, *freeman*, *halfpenny*, *blackbird*, *quicksilver*, *Northampton*, *Easingham*, &c.

3. Those which consist of a noun preceded by a verb, as *stopgap*, *makeweight*, *daredevil*, *spitfire*, *turncock*, *makeshift*, &c.

This class of words is peculiar. The verb does not *modify* the meaning of the noun which follows it, but *governs* it.

4. Those which consist of a verb, preceded by a noun, as *god-send* (very rare).

5. Those which consist of a noun preceded by an adverb, as *forethought*, *foretaste*, *foresight*, *afterthought*, *afteract*, *afterpart*, *forepart*, *aftertaste*, *by-word*, *by-play*, *bystander*, *onset*, *inroad*.

6. Those which consist of a noun preceded by a preposition, as *forenoon*, *afternoon*.

7. Those which consist of a verb preceded by an adverb, as *inlet*, *oulet*, *thoroughfare*, *welfare*.

- 301 Such combinations as *standstill*, ("everything was at a *standstill*,") are not proper compounds, but *phrases* used as nouns. (Compare *pis-aller*, *laissez-aller*, in French.) So "an *everyday* occurrence;" "an *extempore* speech."

B.—Compound Adjectives.

- 302 Compound Adjectives may be arranged in the following classes:—

1. Those consisting of an adjective preceded by a noun, as *sky-blue*, *fire-new*, *pitch-dark*, *blood-red*, *grass-green*, *ankle-deep*, *cl-long*, *breast-high*, *head-strong*, *sin-ful*, *hope-ful* (and other compounds of full written with one *l*), *child-like*, *red-hot*, *fire-new*, *brand-new*, *war-like*.

2. Verbal Adjectives formed by the suffix *d* or *ed* from compounds made up of (a) a noun preceded by a noun, or (b) a noun preceded by an adjective; as, (a) *hare-brained*, *ox-eyed*, *bull-necked*, *pigeon-breasted*, (b) *wry-necked*, *saint-hearted*, *blue-eyed*, *fair-haired*, *hot-headed*, *close-grained*.

3. Compounds consisting of an imperfect participle, preceded by its object; as, *truth-telling*, *tale-bearing*, *all-seeing*, *heart-rending*, *wine-bibbing*, *peace-making*, *time-serving*.

4. Compounds consisting of an adjective or participle, preceded by an adverb; as, *all-powerful*, *al-mighty*, *al-one* (i.e., *all-one*), *up-right*, *dun-right*, *ill-favoured*, *under-done*, *over-done*, *over-fed*, *well-meaning*, *out-spoken*, *new-born*, *inborn*, *inbred*.

5. Compounds consisting of a passive participle preceded by a noun, which stands to it in a kind of adverbial relation; as, *thunder-riven*, *bed-ridden*, *heart-broken*, *tempest-tossed*, *sea-borne*. (Compounds of this kind are of frequent occurrence in poetry.)

6. Compounds formed by prefixing a numeral to the noun *fold*: *twofold*, *threefold*, *manifold*, &c.

C.—Compound Pronouns.

- 302b. *Whoever*, *whosoever*, *whoso*.

D.—Compound Verbs.

303 Compound Verbs consist of—

1. Compounds consisting of a verb preceded by a separable adverb ; as, *over-do*, *under-stand*, *fulfil*, *over-lie*, *over-lap*, *under-go*, *out-do*.
2. Compounds consisting of a verb preceded by a noun, which in fact stands in the objective relation to it ; as, *back-bite*, *brow-beat*. Compounds formed on this principle are most common in the participial form. (See § 302-3.)
3. Compounds consisting of a verb preceded by an adjective, as *white-wash*, *rough-hew*.

E.—Compound Adverbs.

304 These consist of—

1. Adverbs followed by prepositions (or adverbs) ; as, *herein*, *thereto*, *wherefore*, *whereby*, *hereafter*.
2. Nouns preceded by nouns ; as, *sideways*, *lengthways*, or *lengthwise* (Germ., *weise*).
3. Nouns preceded by adjectives ; as, *sometimes*, *always*, *straight-way*, *otherwise*. (Compare "on this wise.")
4. Nouns preceded by the preposition *per* ; as, *peradventure*, *perhaps*.
5. Adverbs preceded by adverbs ; as, *thereabout*, *thenceforward*, *whereas*, *erewhile*, *almost*.
6. Adverbs preceded by adjectives ; as, *somewhere*, *nowhere*, *somehow*, *anyhow*, *anywhere*, *also*, &c.
7. Some adverbs are a sort of amalgamated phrases ; as, *nevertheless*, *moreover*, *howbeit*. *Notwithstanding*, when it appears to be used adverbially, may have *this* or *that* supplied, so as to form a nominative absolute. (See § 283.)

F.—Compound Prepositions.

These consist of two prepositions ; as, *into*, *upon*, *throughout*, *within*.

G.—Compound Conjunctions.

Although, albeit, whereas.

DERIVATION.

305 A word is a *derived word*, or a *derivative*, when there exists some simpler word or *root*, out of which it has been formed by certain changes of letters, by the addition of prefixes or suffixes which have not an independent existence as separate words, or by the operation of both the above modes of formation at the same time.*

306 When two words are related to each other, it is sometimes evident, from the form alone, which is the primary and which the derived form. Prefixes and affixes mark *derivatives*, as

* In the present work, this analysis is carried only so far as the vocabulary of modern English extends.

derivatives are not formed by the *omission* of elements already existing in a word. Thus we see at once that *bestir* is derived from *stir*, and *bondage* from *bond*.

- 307 But the connexion is not always so obvious. We could not tell *a priori* from the form alone whether *bond* was derived from *bind*, or *bind* from *bond*; whether *advice* was derived from *advise*, or *advise* from *advice*. In such cases we must be guided partly by analogy, and partly by a consideration of *the relation of the ideas represented*. Thus, as the act of *binding* precedes the existence of the *bond*, *bond* is a derivative from *bind*. As the act of *speaking* precedes and produces *speech*, the noun is derived from the verb, not the verb from the noun.*

Derived Nouns.

- 308 Derived Nouns are formed (A) from other nouns, (B) from adjectives, (C) from verbs.

A.—Nouns derived from Nouns.

- 309 (a) Nouns are derived from nouns by the following prefixes :—
 1. *dis*; as, distaste, disfavour, disproof.
 (*Dis*, though of Latin origin, has become thoroughly naturalized in English, retaining, as an English prefix, only that meaning which it has in such Latin words as *dissimilis*, *displace*, i.e., it negatives the meaning of the following word.)
 2. *un*; as, unrest.
 3. *mis*; as, misdeed, mistrust, mischance, misconduct, misrule.
 This prefix (connected with the verb *to miss*) implies error or fault in the action indicated by the other part of the compound.
- 310 (b) Nouns are formed from nouns by the following suffixes :—
 1. *-dom*; as, kingdom, serfdom, Christendom, earldom, thralldom, dukedom, martyrdom.
Freedom and *wisdom* are derived from adjectives.
 Nouns in *-dom* are properly abstract nouns, indicating the state or condition that is implied by the primary word.
 2. *-ship*; kingship, lordship, sonship, worship (i.e. *worthship*), friendship. These are abstract nouns denoting the state or condition of the person represented by the root-noun. *-Scape* (in *landscape* or *landskip*, German *landschaft*,) is of the same origin.
 3. *-hood*; manhood, knighthood, wifehood, babyhood. This termination has much the same force as the last.
 4. *-red*; kindred, hatred. Abstract nouns denoting the condition or feeling implied by the primary noun.

* Some grammarians lay down the principle that the noun is always the primary word. This is clearly wrong. That will be named first in language which exists first in thought.

5. *-age*; bondage, mileage, village (Fr. *ville*), herbage, pottage (from *pot*), tonnage, poundage, vassalage, pilotage, vintage, bandage. (See § 314. 13.) Some nouns in *-age* denote the state, condition, or occupation of the person indicated by the primary noun, as *vassalage*, *pilotage*; others denote a collection, quantity, or summing-up, as *poundage*, *mileage*, *herbage*; others indicate some state or process in which what is indicated by the primary noun is principally concerned, as *wharfage*, *bondage*.

6. *-yer*; sawyer, lawyer, bowyer. This termination marks a person who carries on some trade or profession.

7. *-ier*, or *-eer*; brigadier, grenadier (properly, a soldier who throws *grenades*), pioneer, bombardier (one who throws *bombards*, i.e., large hollow shot), musketeer, cannoneer. Words of this sort are generally military terms, and of French origin.

8. *-ry*, or *-ery**; cookery, slavery, husbandry, eury (i.e., *eggery*), buffoonery, rookery, hostelry, scullery, napery (*napkin*), drapery (Fr. *drap*), lottery, scenery, gentry, pastry.

A few nouns of this formation are derived from adjectives; as, bravery, finery, pleasantry.

Nouns in *-ry* or *-ery* have a kind of *collective* force, or denote a place where there is a collection.

9. *-try*; pantry (a place for *bread*, Fr. *pain*), peltry (from *pellis*=*skin*), poultry (Fr. *poule*). This termination has much the same force as the last.

10. *-y*; smithy, folly (from *fool*), bastardy, baby, daddy, mammy. Some of these are diminutives.

A more numerous class of nouns in *-y* consists of those derived from nouns in *-er* or *-ar*, being usually abstract names for the act indicated by the primary noun; as, bakery, soldiery, farriery, beggary, mockery, pottery, gunnery, archery, foundry, brewery.

11. *-ow* (properly forming diminutives); pillow (from *pile*), shallow (from *shoal*), window (an aperture to let in *wind* or *air*), meadow, shadow.

12. *-ing* (not the gerund suffix); morning, evening.

13. *-en*; garden (connected with *yard*), maiden, kitchen (from *cook*). This termination sometimes forms diminutives, as chicken (from *chick*, another form of *cock*); kitten (from *cat*).

14. *-el* or *le* (sometimes forming diminutives); satchel (from *sack*), kernel, hostel, barbel, trammel, spaddle, or paddle (from *spade*), nozzle (from *nose*), muddle (from *mud*), muzzle (from *mouth*).

15. *-kin* (forming *diminutives*; that is, words which denote a *small sort* of that for which the primary noun stands); lambkin, napkin, pipkin (a little *pipe*; as, "a *pipe* of wine"), firkin (from *four*), mannikin. Also in proper names: Perkin, (i.e. Peterkin, little Peter), Tomkin, Wilkin (from Will-iam), Hawkin (from *Hal*), Watkin (*Wat*, an abbreviation of Walter).

* This termination is derived from the Anglo-Saxon plural termination *-ry*.

16. *-ling* (forming diminutives); duckling, gosling (a little goose), yearling, dumpling, kidling, witting, stripling (a little strip or stripe).

A few nouns of this formation are derived from adjectives, as, darling (from *dear*), fatling, firstling. *Suckling* is derived from a verb (Germ. *Säugling*), as is also *hireling*.

17. *-et* (forming diminutives); billet, couplet, blanket (properly a white covering), owlet, jacket, pocket (a little *pock* or *poke*; Fr. *poche*), bullet (a little *bulle* or *ball*), ticket, plummet, (a little piece of lead—*plumbus*), socket, puppet (a little *doll*; Fr. *poupée*), lancet, lappet, mallet, packet, cricket (so called from the *cricks* or *crutches* (A. S. *cricce*), i.e. *stumps* with which it is played), crotchet (from *crook*).

18. *-ock* (forming diminutives); bullock, hillock, paddock.

19. *-let* (forming diminutives); armlet, bracelet (Fr. *bras*), cutlet, streamlet, tartlet.

20. *-ess*. Feminine nouns are formed from masculine nouns by this termination:—Deaconess, shepherdess, duchess, abbess.

21. *-ine* (forming feminines); heroine, landgravine.

22. *-one* or *-oon* (an *intensive* termination, of Italian origin, denoting a large specimen of the thing in question); balloon, bassoon, cartoon, trombone, pontoon, million, billion.

B.—Nouns derived from Adjectives.

311 Nouns are derived from adjectives by the addition of the following suffixes:—

1. *-ness*; dearness, redness, goodness, weakness, &c. Almost any adjective may have a noun formed from it by this suffix, which forms an abstract noun denoting the quality indicated by the adjective.

2. *-dom*; wisdom, freedom (see § 310. 1).

3. *-ship*; hardship (see § 310. 2).

4. *-hood*; likelihood (*likely*), hardihood (from *hardy*) (see § 310. 3).

5. *-th* or *-t*; dearth (*dearness*), wealth, truth, strength (from *strong*), breadth (from *broad*), length (from *long*), width, health (from *heal* or *whole*—Germ. *heil*), height (properly *highth*, from *high*), mirth (from *merry*), sloth (from *slow*). These are abstract nouns.

Guilt is from a noun, *guile*.

In the word *month*, *th* is not a suffix, but is radical. Comp. Germ. *Monat* and *Mond*.

6. *-ling* (see § 310. 17).

7. *-ard*; drunkard, dullard, sluggard (*sluggish* implies an adjective with a guttural at the end), wizard (from *wise*). See § 316. 5.

8. *-ry* or *-ery*; finery, bravery, pleasantry (see § 310. 8).

C.—Nouns derived from Verbs.

312 Nouns are derived from verbs (a) by a modification of the vowel sound (b) by a modification of the final consonant; (c) by a modification both of the vowel sound and of the final consonant; (d) by suffixes, with or without a change of the vowel sound.

313 a. Nouns derived from verbs by a change in the vowel sound as :—

bond	<i>from</i>	bind	dole	<i>from</i>	deal
stroke	„	strike	brood	„	breed
song	„	sing	knot	„	knit
drove	„	drive	writ	„	write
bliss	„	bless	bit	„	bite
scrap	„	scrape	grip	„	gripe
gap	„	gape	strip	„	stripe
share	„	shear	stroke	„	strike
food	„	feed			

314 b. Nouns derived from verbs by a modification of the final consonant; as :—

ditch	<i>from</i>	dig	advice	<i>from</i>	advise
belief	„	believe	speech	„	speak
proof	„	prove	strife	„	strive
use	„	use	girth	„	gird
abuse	„	abuse	stitch	„	stick

315 c. Nouns derived from verbs by a modification both of the vowel sound, and of the final consonant.

woof	<i>from</i>	weave	loss	<i>from</i>	lose
dike	„	dig	breath	„	breathe
choice	„	choose	web	„	weave
life	„	live	breach	„	break
batch	„	bake	hilt	„	hold
watch	„	wake			

316 d. Nouns are derived from verbs by the addition of the following suffixes :—

1. *-er* (denoting the agent by whom an act is performed); digger, cutter, runner, seeker, finder, preacher, idler, &c.

2. *-ar* or *-or* (having the same force as *-er*); sailor, grantor, lessor, tailor, beggar, liar.

3. *-ster* (denoting the agent, and originally a feminine termination); Brewster, Baxter or Bagster (from *bake*), spinster, gamester, punster, trickster.

One or two of this class are derived from nouns; as webster, barrister (*bar*).

4. *-ee* (marking the object of an action); nominee, assignee, lessee, committee, grantee, and feoffee.

Grantee, settee, guarantee, have a different meaning. The termination *-ee* is of French origin.

5. *-ard* or *art*; laggard, lollard, blinkard, stinkard, dotard, braggart, pollard.

Nouns of this formation mostly imply a person by whom something is habitually done. They have also generally an *opprobrious* meaning.

6. *-en* or *n*; heaven (from *heave*), main (from *may*—"might and main"), token (from a root found in German, *zeig-en*) warden.

7. *-th* or *d*; growth, stealth, ruth (from the verb *to rue*), blowth, filth (*de-file*), birth (from *bear*), flood (from *flow*). These nouns, like those that follow, are names of the act which is indicated by the verb.

8. *-t* (often with a modification of the vowel sound).

feint (from <i>feign</i>)	theft (<i>thieve</i>)
frost (<i>freeze</i>)	cleft (<i>cleave</i>)
blast (German <i>blas-en</i>)	drift (<i>drive</i>)
sight (<i>see</i>)	thrift (<i>thrive</i>)
flight (<i>flee</i> or <i>fly</i>)	shrift (<i>shrive</i>)
graft (<i>graff</i>)	gift (<i>give</i>)
restraint	rift (<i>rive</i>)
weft (<i>weave</i>)	

9. *-el*, *-l*, or *-le*.

shovel <i>from</i> shove	shuttle <i>from</i> shoot
prickle " prick	puzzle " pose
treddle " tread	bundle " bind
spindle " spin	nipple " nip
spittle " spit	stopple " stop
cripple " creep	girdle " gird

10. *-ter*; laughter, slaughter (from *slay*, German *schlagen*).

11. *-er* (not denoting the agent); supper, dinner, dower (*en-dow*).

Platter (from a noun *plate*), stranger (from an adjective).

12. *-m*; team (from *tow*), seam (from *sew*), qualm (from *quail*), bloom (from *blow*), scream (from *cry*, German *Ge-schrei*). Most of these nouns denote the result of the act indicated by the verb.

13. *-age* (see also § 310. 5); breakage, leakage, brewage, tillage, coinage, salvage, demurrage, pillage (from the verb *pill* or *peel*, meaning to *strip*), stowage. Nouns of this formation denote either the act which the verb indicates, or what is produced by it.

14. *-y*; delivery, recovery, embroidery.

15. *-ment* (a termination of Latin origin, but naturalized in English); bewilderment, punishment, estrangement, instalment, defilement, encroachment, judgment, banishment. The termination *-ment* commonly denotes the result of the performance of the act indicated by the verb-root to which it is appended, as *defilement*, *arrangement*. Sometimes it denotes the means by which the act indicated by the radical verb is performed or realized, or

else the performance of the act itself, as *inducement*, *sacrament*, *reinforcement*, *banishment*.

16. *-lock* or *-ledge*; *wedlock*, *knowledge*.

17. *-et*; *hatchet* (from *hack*).

18. *-ing*; *Gerunds*.

Derived Adjectives.

317 Adjectives are derived (A) from nouns; (B) from other adjectives; (C) from verbs.

318 A. Adjectives are derived from nouns by means of the following suffixes:—

1. *-ed*; *ragged*, *wretched*, *wicked* (perhaps from *witch* = *witched*), *left-handed*, *long-legged*, &c. This termination has much the same force as in the perfect participle. (See § 302. 2.)

2. *-en* or *-n* (generally denoting the *material* of which a thing is made); *wooden*, *golden*, *leathern*, *brazen*, *earthen*, *woollen*, *waxen*, &c. This termination is derived from the Anglo-Saxon genitive in *-an*.

3. *-ern*; *northern*, *southern*, *eastern*, *western*.

4. *-eous*; *beauteous*, *duteous*, *bounteous*, *righteous*, *courteous*, *piteous*.

5. *-ish*; *slavish*, *swinish*, *Romish*, *thievish*, *Spanish*, *Gaulish*, *Turkish*.

6. *-less*; *heedless*, *thriftless*, *senseless*, *useless*, *lawless*, *penniless*, *pitiless*. Adjectives of this kind are extremely common. They denote the absence of that which is indicated by the noun.

7. *-ly* (a softened form of *-like*); *manly*, *heavenly*, *earthly*, *godly*, *lively*, *ghostly*, *ghastly* (from *ghost*, German *geist*), *beastly*.

8. *-some*; *quarrelsome*, *frolicsome*, *troublesome*, *handsome*. Adjectives of this kind indicate the presence of a good deal of that which the noun denotes.

9. *-y* (or *-ey* after a word ending in *-y*); *airy*, *lofty*, *balmy*, *feathery*, *downy*, *dreamy*, *bony*, *clayey*, *hairy*, *stormy*, *earthy*.

10. *-ward*; *awkward* (from *auke*, the left hand, a word found in old writers; as, for example, in Holland's translation of Plutarch. *Aukely* = *awkwardly*, is found in Fuller). It is doubtful, however, whether *-ward* or *-ard* is the right termination. Dryden uses *awkard*, which is also a common provincial pronunciation of the word.

Southward, *northward*, *homeward*. (It is doubtful whether these are genuine adjectives.)

319 B. Adjectives are formed from adjectives partly by prefixes, and partly by suffixes.

1. By the prefix *a-*; as *alive*, *awearry*.

2. By the prefix *un-* (negative); *unwise*, *unlikely*, *untrue*, *unimpressible*, *unkind*, &c.

3. By the prefix *dis-* (negative); *disloyal*, *dishonest*.

4. By the suffix *-ish* (having a diminutive force); *blackish*, *whitish*, *dullish*, *smartish*, *brackish*.

5. By the suffix *-some* (see § 318. 8) ; lightsome, wearisome, fulsome, blithesome, darksome.
6. By the suffix *-ly* ; likely, purely, southerly (i. e. southernly), northerly (i. e. northernly), only (from *one*).
7. By the suffix *-th* ; fourth, fifth, &c.
8. By the suffix *-ty* ; twenty, thirty, &c.
- 320 C. The most important class of adjectives derived from verbs consists of participles. When a participle is used as a mere attributive adjective, it is placed *before* the noun which it qualifies ; as, "A pleasing tale," "A tiring walk."
- 321 Adjectives are also formed from verbs :—
1. By the suffix *-y* ; as sticky, sundry (from *sunder*, to separate), flabby (from *flap*).
 2. By the suffix *-some* (see § 319. 4 ; 318. 8) ; tiresome, irksome, winsome.
 3. By the suffix *-able* ; eatable, bearable.
 4. By the suffix *-ive* ; talkative.
- The last two suffixes are of Latin origin, but naturalized.

Derived Pronouns.

- 321 b. Pronouns are derived from other pronouns by the following suffixes :—
1. *-ther* ; whether, from *who* (Anglo-Saxon *hwa*) ; other (A.-S. *ather*), from (*an one*) ; *either* (A.-S. *aegther*) ; *neither*, a compound of the negative, and *either*.
 2. *-ch* (a corruption of *ylc* or *ilk*, 'same') ; such (A.-S. *swylc*, from *sua*, 'so,' and *ylc*) ; which (A.-S. *hwylc*, from *hwa* and *ylc*) ; each (A.-S. *aelc*, possibly from the prefix *aeg-*, which has the sense of *ever* or *every*, and *ylc*). *Every*, in which the guttural is disguised in the *y*, is really of similar origin.

Derived Verbs.

- 322 Verbs are derived (A) from nouns, (B) from adjectives, (C) from other verbs.

A.—Verbs derived from Nouns.

Verbs are formed from nouns (a) by prefixes, (b) by suffixes, (c) by a modification of the final consonant, (d) by a modification of the vowel sound, with or without a modification of the final consonant.

- 323 a. Verbs are formed from nouns by the following prefixes :—
1. *A* ; abut (from *butt*) ; alarm (German *Lärmen*) ; amuse.
 2. *Be* ; becloud, befool, befriend, beguile, belie, befleck (from *fleck*, a spot), belabour, bedew, behead.
 3. *En* (*em* before a labial) ; empower, embody, encase, encamp, encourage, encompass, enact, enslave, enshrine, enthrall, &c.

(This prefix is of Latin origin, but has been naturalized, so that it is used before words of Saxon origin.)

4. *Dis* (implying the removal of that which the noun indicates); disburden, disguise, dismask.

5. By the prefix *un*; unbosom, unkeppel, unsex, untile.

324 b. Verbs are formed from nouns by the following suffixes:—

1. *-en*; lengthen, strengthen, heighten.

2. *-l* or *-le*.

muffle	<i>from</i>	muff	nestle	<i>from</i>	nest
quibble	„	quip	scribble	„	scribe
kneel	„	knee	throttle	„	throat
freckle	„	freck	curdle	„	curd
sparkle	„	spark	boggle	„	bog (perhaps)

325 c. Verbs are formed from nouns by a modification of the final consonant.

calve	<i>from</i>	calf	ap-peace	<i>from</i>	peace
halve	„	half	delve	„	delf (<i>a pit</i>)
bathe	„	bath	grease	„	grease
soothe	„	sooth	prize	„	price
bulge	„	bulk	shelve	„	shelf

326 d. Verbs are formed from nouns by a modification of the vowel sound and final consonant; as *graze* (*from* *grass*), *glaze* (*from* *glass*), *hitch* (*from* *hook*).

326* There is a large class of verbs and nouns which differ only in accent. They are all of Latin origin. The noun has the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the second. In most cases the verb is derived from the noun.

<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>
áccent	accént	éxport	expórt
augment	augmént	óbject	objéct
cóntラスト	contrást	próject	projéct
cónvict	convíct	tórmént	tormént

B.—Verbs derived from Adjectives.

327 a. By the following prefixes:—

1. *en* or *em*; enable, empurple, emboss (boss = hollow), endear, embitter (see § 323, 3).

2. *be*; bedim, begrime (*from* *grim*).

b. By the following suffixes:—

1. *-en*; sweeten, fatten, widen, tighten, slacken.

2. *-er*; bewilder (*from* *wild*), hinder ('to set *back*,' from the root *hind* in *be-hind*), linger (*from* *long*), lower.

3. *-se*; cleanse, rinse (German *rein*).

C.—Verbs derived from Verbs.

328 a. Verbs are formed from verbs by the following prefixes:—

1. *a*; awake, await, abear, abide, amount, arouse, arise, amend.

2. *be*; bestride, besmear, bedabble, bedauh, befall, befit, bestir, bestow, betake, beseech (*from seek*).

The effect of this prefix is to convert an intransitive verb into a transitive one.

3. *dis*; disembody, disband, disbelieve, dispraise, disenfranchise, displease, disseize, distrust (see § 323. 4).

4. *em* or *en*; embolden, enliven. (The simple verbs *bolden* and *liven* are no longer used.)

5. *mis* (see § 309. 3); mislead, misstate, misspend, misgive, misjudge.

6. *un* (negative); undo, untie, unstring, unbind.

In the case of verbs *un* is not merely a negative, but implies the reversal of an act already done. It answers to the German *ent-*.

7. *for* or *fore* (German *ver*; not the same as the following); foredo, forego, forbid, forgive, forswear, forget, forsake. This termination implies that the action indicated by the simple verb is negated, done in a bad sense, or intensified.

8. *fore* (=Lat. *prae* or *pro*); foretell, forebode, forecast, foreknow, forerun, forestal.

9. *gain* (German *gegen*, root of *against*); gainsay, gainstand, gainstrive.

10. *with* (German *wider*; Anglo-Saxon *with*); withstand, withdraw, withhold.

11. *re*; retouch, regild, rebind, rebuild (a Latin prefix, but naturalized).

329 b. Verbs are formed from verbs by the following suffixes:—

1. *-er* (giving a combined diminutive and frequentative form to the verb.*)

glimmer	from gleam	allobber	from alop
swagger	„ swag or sway	fritter	„ fret
sputter	„ spit	batter	„ beat
be-spatter	„ spit	patter	„ pat
		wander	„ wend

2. *-le* or *-el* (having much the same force as *-er*).

dazzle	from daze	waddle	from wade
settle	„ set	snuffle	„ snuff
snivel	„ sniff	swaddle	„ swathe
straddle	„ stride	startle	„ start
shuffle	„ shove	nibble	„ nip
grapple	„ grab or gripe	draggie	„ drag
grovel	„ grope	crumple	„ crimp
dribble	„ drip	crackle	„ crack
wrinkle	„ wring	drawl	„ draw
gamble	„ game		

3. *-on*. Reckon, blazon, beckon.

* That is, implying that the action is repeated in a petty form.

4. *-ish*. Burnish, banish.
 5. *-y*. Sully (*from* soil), worry (*from* wear).
 6. *-om* or *-m*; blossom (*from* blush); gleam (*from* glow).
- 330 c. Verbs are formed from other verbs by a modification of the final consonant, with or without a modification of the vowel sound; as, wrench (*from* wring), drench (*from* drink), blench (*from* blink), dredge (*from* drag), watch (*from* wake), dodge (*from* dog, "to dog a person's steps"), hatch (*from* hack), twitch (*from* tweak).
- 331 d. Verbs are formed from other verbs by a modification of the vowel sound.
- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| fell <i>from</i> fall | roost <i>from</i> rest |
| raise ,, rise | lay ,, lie |
| set ,, sit | drip ,, drop |
| chip ,, chop | droop ,, drop |
| sip ,, sop | dun ,, din |
| sniff ,, snuff | reel ,, roll |
- 331 b. Almost any noun may be turned into a verb; as, to iron a shirt; to dock a ship; to ham-string an animal; to black-ball a candidate; to paper a room; to ship goods, &c. *Vice-versâ*, many nouns are only verb-roots used substantively, as work, print, walk, &c.

Collateral Forms.

- 332 In the case of nouns, adjectives, and verbs, we often find collateral forms, differing slightly, but not (apparently) derived one from the other; as:—

smash <i>and</i> mash	stench <i>and</i> stink
splash ,, plash	clot ,, clod
swag ,, wag	sneak ,, snake
smelt ,, melt	stop ,, estop
squash ,, quash	spy ,, espy
squench,, quench	stark ,, starch
screech ,, creak	top ,, tip
swing ,, wing (<i>German</i> Schwinge)	slop ,, slap
hurl ,, whirl	quell ,, kill
scuffle ,, shuffle	pouch ,, poke (<i>or</i> pocket)
scabby ,, shabby	scot (<i>in</i> <i>scot free</i>) ,, shot
skirt ,, shirt	pick ,, peck
mark ,, march (<i>a</i> <i>boundary</i>)	seek ,, beseech
lurk ,, lurch	beam ,, boom
blot ,, blotch	desk ,, dish (<i>discus</i> , a. <i>Tisch</i>)
stumble,, tumble	state ,, estate
slash ,, lash	strange ,, estrange
bark ,, barge	crumple ,, rumple
bank ,, bench	grumble ,, rumble

- 334 For Derived Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions, the student is referred to the sections in which those parts of speech are treated of.

LATIN PREFIXES.

- 335 The following prefixes are found in words of Latin origin. Most of them are prepositions or adverbs :—

1. *a, ab, abs* (from or away). Avert, abduction, abstract.
2. *ad* (to), found also in the forms *ac, al, an, ap, as, at*, according to the consonant that follows it. Accede, allude, announce, appear, assent, attend, aspect, aspire.
3. *am* or *amb* (round). Amputate, ambiguous.
4. *ante* or *anti* (before). Antediluvian, antecessor, anticipate.
5. *circum* or *circu* (round). Circumlocution, circuit.
6. *con* (with), or (when modified by the next consonant) *com, col, co*. Conduct, contend, compact, compare, collusion, coheir.
7. *contra* (against, often Anglicized into *counter*). Contravene, counteract.
8. *de* (down, from). Denote, describe, descend.
9. *dis, dis, or dif* before *f* (apart, in different directions). Dilute, dissent, differ.
10. *ex, e, ec, or ef* (out of). Extrude, educe, effusion.
11. *extra* (beyond some boundary, outside). Extravagant, extradition.
12. *in* (in, into, on, or against), sometimes modified into *im, il, or ir*. Induct, impel, illusion, irruption.
13. *in* (not), modified as above. Insecure, improper, illegitimate, irrational.
14. *inter* (among, between). Interest, interpose.
15. *intro* (within). Intromit, introduce.
16. *ob* or *obs* (against), modified into *oc, op, of*. Obdurate, obstinate, occur, offend.
17. *per* or *pel* (through). Perpend, pellucid.
18. *post* (after). Postpone.
19. *prae* or *pre* (before). Praelection, precentor, presume.
20. *praeter* (past). Praetermit.
21. *pro, por, or pol* (forth or forward). Promote, portend, pollute.
22. *re* or *red* (back). Relent, reduce, redaction.
23. *retro* (backwards). Retrograde, retrospect.
24. *se* (apart). Seduce, separate.
25. *sub* (under), modified to *suc, suf, or sur*. Subdue, suffuse, succeed, re-surrection.
26. *subter* (beneath). Subterfuge.
27. *trans* or *tra* (across or beyond). Translate, tradition.
28. *ultra* (beyond). Ultramontane.

GREEK PREFIXES.

336 The following prefixes are found in words of Greek origin :—

1. *a* or *an* (not). Anarchy.
2. *amphi* (on both sides, or round). Amphibious, amphitheatre.
3. *ana* (up). Anabasis, anatomy, analogy.
4. *anti* (against). Antithesis, antipathy.
5. *apo* (from). Apogee, apology.
6. *cata* (down). Catalepsy, catastrophe.
7. *di* (two, or in two). Disyllables, diphthong.
8. *dia* (through, among). Diameter, diaphanous.
9. *en* or *em* (in or on). Emphasis, enema.
10. *endo* (within). Endosmose.
11. *epi* (upon). Epilogue, epitaph.
12. *ec* or *ex* (out of). Exodus, ecstatic.
13. *exo* (outside). Exosmose.
14. *hyper* (over). Hyperbolic.
15. *hypo* (under). Hypotenuse, hypothesis.
16. *meta* (implying change). Metamorphosis.
17. *para* (beside). Parabola, paraphrase.
18. *peri* (round). Peristyle, perimeter.
19. *pro* (before). Program.
20. *pros* (to). Prosody.
21. *syn* (with, together), modified into *sym* or *syl*. Syndic, syntax, symbol, syllogism, syllable.
22. *eu* (well). Euphony, eulogy.

LATIN SUFFIXES.

337 The following suffixes are found in words of Latin origin :—

a. Noun Suffixes.

1. *acy* (Lat. *acia*). Fallacy.
2. *aster* (forming diminutives). Poetaster.
3. *ance* or *ancy* (Lat. *antia*). Constancy, constance, parlance.
4. *am* or *an*. Captain, mountain, sacristan, publican.
5. *ary*. Granary, lapidary.
6. *ate*. Magistrate, magnate, consulate.
7. *ency* or *ence* (Lat. *entia*). Credence.
8. *olence* or *ulence* (Lat. *olentia* or *ulentia*). Violence, virulence, corpulence, somnolence.
9. *ion* (Lat. *io*, in nom. case). Religion, legion.
10. *tion* or *sion* (Lat. *tio* or *sio*, in nom. case, derived from perfect participles). Scansion, detention, election, monition.
11. *tude* (Lat. *tudo*). Latitude, fortitude.
12. *ture* or *sure* (Lat. *tura* or *sura*, derived from perfect participles). Juncture, tonsure.
13. *ice* (Lat. *itia* or *itium*). Justice, solstice, service.
14. *ty* or *ity* (Lat. *tas* or *itas*). Dignity, security, ability.
15. *ment* (Lat. *mentum*). Discernment.

16. *mony* (Lat. *monia*). Parsimony, acrimony, patrimony.
17. *or* or *our* (Lat. *or*). Amour, ardour, clamour.
18. *t* or *te* (Lat. *tum*). Fact, date, com-pact.
19. *bule* (Lat. *bulus* or *butum*). Vestibule.
20. *cule*, *cle*, *ule*, *il*, or *le*. (Lat. *culus*, *cula* or *culum*, *ulus*, *ula*, *ulum*, *ellus*, -a, -um, *lus*, *la*, *lum*), forming diminutives. Animalcule, corpuscule, part-i-cle, radicle, globule, castle, pencil, pistil.
21. *ple* (Lat. *pulus*). Maniple.
22. *sor*, *tor*, and *trix*, *f*. (marking the agent). Sponsor, victor executrix.
23. *y* (Lat. *ia*). Misery, infamy.
24. *tic*. Lunatic, fanatic, erratic.

b.—Adjective Suffixes.

- 338
1. *al* (Lat. *alis*). Carnal, venal, regal, capital.
 2. *ar* (Lat. *aris*). Solar, polar.
 3. *ary* (Lat. *arius*). Binary, plenary, auxiliary.
 4. *an* or *ane* (Lat. *anus*). Pagan, urban, mundane.
 5. *ene* (Lat. *enus* and *oenus*). Terrene, obscene.
 6. *ine* (Lat. *inus*). Vaccine, marine.
 7. *ian* (Lat. *ianus*). Christian.
 8. *ible* or *ble* (Lat. *ibilis*, *bilis*). Forceful, amiable, able.
 9. *id* (Lat. *idus*). Fervid, horrid.
 10. *ic* (Lat. *icus*). Gastric, concentric.
 11. *il* or *ile* (Lat. *ilis*). Civil, futile.
 12. *y* (Lat. *ius*). Amatory, cursory, illusory.
 13. *ous* or *ose* (Lat. *osus*). Gibbous, curious, verbose.
 14. *aceous* (Lat. *aceus*). Herbaceous, crustaceous.
 15. *olent* or *ulent* (Lat. *olentus* or *ulentus*). Virulent, turbulent, violent.
 16. *tive* or *sive* (Lat. *tivus* or *sivus*). Cursive, furtive.
 17. *ant* or *ent* (Lat. *ans*, *ens*, nom. case, participle). Extant, verdant, ardent.
 18. *te* or *se* (Lat. *tus* or *sus*, pass. part.). Irrate, concrete, erudite, sparse, diffuse.
 19. *ple* (Lat. *plex*). Double, treble, &c.

c.—Verb Suffixes.

339. There are two principal modes in which verbs are formed in English from Latin verbs. One mode is by taking simply the crude form of the infinitive mood or present tense, without any suffix; as *intend*, *defend*, *manumit*. Sometimes mute *e* makes its appearance after a long vowel, as in *incline*, *opine*, *revise*. The second mode is to adopt as a suffix the termination of the perfect participle passive (slightly modified), *t*, *s*, *ate*, or *ite* (Lat. *tus*, *sus*, *atus*, *itus*); as *create* (from *creatus*), *conduct* (from *conductus*), *credit* (from *creditus*), *expedite* (*expeditus*), *incense* (from *incensus*). When derivatives are formed by both

methods, one generally retains one of the meanings of the original verb, the other another. Compare *deduce* and *deduct*; *condure* and *conduct*; *construe* and *construct*; *revert* and *reverse*; *convert* and *converse*.

Nouns (or adjectives) and verbs of Latin origin are often the same in form, but are distinguished by the accent, the noun or adjective having the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the second.

Noun.	Verb.	Noun or Adjective.	Verb.
áccent	accént	óbject	objéct
áffix	affix	próduce	produce
áugment	augmént	prótest	protést
cóllect	colléct	fréquent	fréquént
cóncert	concért	ábsent	absént
cónduct	condúct	cómpound	compóund
cónvért	convért	présent	présént
éxport	expórt	rébel	rebél
éxtract	extráct	súbject	subiéct
ínsult	insúlt		

GREEK SUFFIXES.

340 The following suffixes mark words of Greek origin :—

a.—Noun Suffixes.

1. *sm* or *ism*. Sophism, spasm, aneurism.
2. *st* or *ist*. Iconoclast, panegyrist, sophist.
3. *sis*. Crisis, phthisis, emphasis.
4. *c*. Catastrophe.
5. *y*. Anatomy, analogy, monarchy.
6. *ic* or *ics*, or *tic*. Logic, rhetoric, ethics, arithmetic.
7. *ad* or *id*. Iliad, Aeneiad, Thebaid, Troad.
8. *isk* (diminutives). Asterisk, obelisk.
9. *ma*. Diorama, enema.
10. *tre* or *ter*. Centre, meter, theatre.

b.—Verb Suffix.

ize. Baptize, criticise.

341 The following examples will illustrate the way in which groups of derivatives cluster round a common origin.

Root, mun-us (share, portion).

munition	communicative
muniment	communicativeness
commune	communicator
communicate	communion
communicant	community
communicable	excommunicate
communicability	incommunicable
communication	immunity

Root, fac-io (fec or fic, make).

defect	efficacy
defection	efficacious
defective	efficaciously
defectively	efficient
deficient	efficiently
deficiency	efficiency
effect	infect
effective	infectious
effectively	infection
effectless	sufficient
effector	sufficiency
effectual	proficient
effectually	proficiency, &c.
effectuate	

341 b. When a compound or derived word is made up of elements derived from different languages, it is called a *hybrid* (*hybrida* = mongrel, from Greek *ὕβρις*), as *falsehood*, *politely*. Some writers speak as if all such formations were faulty, and lay down as a rule that "in derived words all the parts must belong to one and the same language." This is quite a mistake. When a word of foreign origin has been thoroughly naturalized in English, it is capable of receiving all the inflections, prefixes, and affixes which are employed in English. If this were not the case we could not decline such words when they are nouns, or conjugate them when they are verbs. Such words as *falsehood*, *grateful*, *unjust*, *rudeness*, *doubtless*, *useless*, *artful*, *accuser*, *seducer*, *politeness*, *grandfather*, *conceited*, *readable*, *martyrdom*, *wondrous*, are all hybrids, the stem and the prefix or suffix being the one of English, the other of classical origin; but any rule which would condemn such formations should be rejected as arbitrary and groundless. The following principle, however, is observed in the formation of derivatives:—If a derived word has been formed by means of an English suffix, and a secondary derivative has to be formed by means of a prefix, the prefix should be English. If the suffix of the first derivative is of classical origin, the prefix should be classical. Thus we say *undecided* and *indecisive*, *un-* and *-ed* being both English, *in-* and *-ive* both Latin. So *ungrateful*, *ingratitude*; *unjustly*, *injustice*. But one or two suffixes of Latin origin (like *-able*) are treated as if of English origin, as in *unspeakable*.

341 c. When the coalescence between the two elements of a compound noun, adjective, or verb is complete, the accent falls upon the first, or modifying word, as *teaspoon*, *blackbird*, *backbite*. When it is still incomplete, the members of the compound are equally accented, as *man-child*. This imperfect coalescence is also frequently indicated by placing a hyphen between the separate parts.

SYNTAX.

- 342 THE word *syntax* means *arrangement* (Greek *syn*, together *taxis*, arrangement). The rules of *syntax* are statements of the various ways in which the words of a sentence are related to each other.
- 343 A sentence is a collection of words of such kinds, and arranged in such a manner, as to make some complete sense.
By "making some complete sense" is meant, that *something is said about something*.
- 344 It is plain, therefore, that every ordinary * sentence must consist of two essential parts: 1st, that which stands for what we speak about; 2nd, that which is said about that of which we speak.
- 345 The word which stands for that about which we speak is called the *subject* of the sentence. The *subject* of a sentence, which is a *word*, must not be confounded with the *thing* that is spoken about.
- 246 That part of a sentence which consists of what is said about the thing spoken of consists of two portions or elements. One part represents some idea which we attach in thought to what is spoken about; this is called the predicate. The other part consists of the means by which the predicate is connected with the subject; this part is called the copula (or *link*). That act of the mind by which the notion expressed by the predicate is joined to the notion expressed by the subject, is called a *judgment*. The result of a judgment is a *thought*. The expression of a thought is a *sentence*.
- 347 The grammatical copula in every sentence consists of the *personal inflections*† of the verb. In the sentence, "Time flies," the subject is *Time*; that which is predicated or asserted of *time* is *flying*; the personal termination of the verb *flies* unites this idea to the subject. In the sentence, "The rose is red," the subject is *rose*; that which is predicated of the rose is, *being red*; the personal inflection by which *is* becomes a third person singular, is the copula.

* In Latin we have sentences in which there is absolutely no subject, as *pluit* (it rains), *tonat* (it thunders), *concurritur* (a rush together takes place). The word *it*, that we use in such cases, is the mere ghost of a subject. There is really nothing definite to which it relates. (See further § 883.)

† That is, the inflections by which number and person are marked, and by which the verb is made a *finite* verb.

If we say, "The journey was pleasant," what we assert of the journey is its *having been pleasant*, it being clear that the notion of *time* belongs to the predicate.

Inasmuch as the personal terminations of a verb have no existence apart from the verb itself, it is usual (and convenient) in grammar to treat the copula as a part of the predicate. Thus in the sentence, "Time flies," *time* is called the subject, and *flies* the predicate. This mode of speaking is slightly different from the use of the word *predicate* in *Logic*; but it must be understood that in using the word *predicate*, we mean *the predicate and copula combined*.*

- 348 In grammar it is usual to employ the terms *subject* and *predicate* in a more restricted sense than in *Logic*. In *Logic*, the *subject* of a proposition is *the entire description* of that which is spoken of: the *predicate* is *all that is employed* to represent the idea which is connected with the subject. Thus, in "This boy's father gave him a book," the subject is "this boy's father;" the predicate is "gave him a book." But in grammar, the single noun *father* is called the subject, and *gave* the predicate, the words connected with *father* and *gave* being treated as enlargements or adjuncts of the subject and predicate.
- 349 Whenever we speak of anything, we make it a separate object of thought. A word that can stand for anything which we make a separate object of thought is called a *substantive*.
- 350 It follows, therefore, that the *subject* of a sentence must be a *substantive*, or what is equivalent to a substantive.
- 351 An adjective denotes an attribute which is attached to some thing, but is not the *name* of a separate object of thought. An adjective, therefore, can never be the subject of a sentence.
- 352 Substantives may be arranged in the following classes:—
1. Nouns.
 2. The Substantive Pronouns (see § 130).

* In *Logic* every proposition is thrown into a shape in which a part of the verb *be* is the copula. This is simply for the purpose of *conversion*, i.e., of altering the proposition so that the subject becomes predicate and the predicate subject. In grammatical analysis this is perfectly needless. The business of grammar is to analyse the forms and combinations which language actually gives us, not other barbarous expressions which are asserted to be their equivalents. "Time flies," or "Tempus fugit" is a perfect sentence *as it stands*, and yet involves no part of the verb *be*, either expressed or understood. If we put together the facts, that there may be a perfect proposition without the use of the verb *be*, that when that or any other verb is used, there is no proposition unless the verb is in a finite form, and that when the verb is put into its appropriate finite form, we get a proposition, perfect both in grammar and in sense, it follows that the *link* or *copula* by which the predicative idea is attached to the subject is the personal inflections of the verb.

3. The Infinitive Mood (see § 189).
 4. Gerunds, or Verbal Nouns (see § 200).
 5. Any word which is itself made the subject of discourse, every word being *a name for itself*.
 6. A phrase or quotation; a phrase being, to all intents and purposes, *a name for itself*.
 7. A Substantive Clause, that is, a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, has the force of a single substantive (§ 402).
- 353 The only part of speech by means of which we can make an assertion is the verb (see § 179). The essential part of every affirmation respecting an object of thought is a finite verb (*i.e.*, a verb in some one of its *personal* forms, not the infinitive mood or participle).
- 354 The subject and the verb are the cardinal points of every sentence. All other words in a sentence are attached directly or indirectly to one or other of these two.
- 355 When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is said to be a *simple* sentence.
- When a sentence contains not only a principal subject and its verb, but also other dependent or subordinate clauses which have subjects and verbs of their own, the sentence is said to be *complex*.
- The subject of a complex sentence may be an entire clause.
- When a sentence consists of two or more principal and independent sentences connected by co-ordinative conjunctions, it is said to be *compound*.
- 356 The subject of a sentence stands for some object of thought: the predicate denotes some fact or idea which we connect with that object, and the union between the two is effected by the copula. But this union may be viewed in more ways than one.
1. When it is our intention to declare that the connexion which is indicated between the subject of discourse and the idea denoted by the predicate does exist, the sentence is *affirmative*; * as, "Thomas left the room."
 2. When it is our wish to know whether the connexion referred to subsists, the sentence is *interrogative*; as, "Did Thomas leave the room?"
 3. When we express our *will* that the connexion between the object of thought denoted by the subject, and that

* A *negative* sentence is only a particular variety of affirmative sentence. If we deny that John is here by saying, "John is not here," we *affirm* that John is *not* here.

which is expressed by the predicate, should subsist, the sentence that results is called an *imperative* sentence; as, "Thomas, leave [thou] the room."*

4. When we express a *wish* that the connexion may subsist, the sentence that results is called an *optative* sentence; as, "May you speedily recover."

In some imperative sentences the *will* is so weakened as to become simply a *wish*; as, "Defend us, O Lord." "Sing, heavenly muse." The *grammatical* force of the sentence, however, is not altered by this.

- 357 In all the above-named kinds of sentences, the *grammatical* connexion between the subject and the verb is the same. It is sufficient, therefore, to take one as a type of all. The affirmative sentence is the most convenient for this purpose.

RELATION OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

- 358 The starting point in a sentence is the subject. To this the other words of the sentence are attached directly or indirectly. The modes in which the various words and groups of words in a sentence are related to each other may be classed as follows:—1. The Predicative Relation. 2. The Attributive Relation. 3. The Objective Relation. 4. The Adverbial Relation.

The Predicative Relation.

- 359 The Predicative Relation is that in which the predicate of

* It is amusing to see how some writers puzzle themselves about the *grammatical* equivalence of all these forms, owing to the fact that grammar has borrowed from logic (which does not take account of questions or commands) the term *predicate*, to denote the notion of action or attribute which, by means of a verb, we connect in thought with something that we think about. Of course *predicate*, if taken literally, implies *assertion*, and commands and questions are not assertions. But, till we get a better term, it is quite easy to use *predicate* in a *technical* sense, with a limitation of its literal meaning, just as a mathematician puts up with the terms *addition* and *multiplication* in algebra, although the operations so designated may be (arithmetically) *subtraction* or *division*. No one scruples to call so an adverb, even though in so many it qualifies not a verb, but an adjective. One writer propounds the curious statement that in imperative sentences the nominative becomes vocative, and a noun in the vocative case cannot be the *subject* of a verb in the imperative mood; and therefore imperative verbs have no subject. Of course in 'Thomas, leave the room,' the noun 'Thomas' is reduced to a vocative, because nouns are always of the *third* person, and therefore a noun cannot be the subject of either an assertive or an imperative sentence in which the verb is in the *second* person. The introduction of the personal pronoun is indispensable when Thomas is *addressed*, as in 'Thomas, you left the room,' or 'Thomas, leave [you] the room.' The *pronoun*, expressed or understood, is then the *subject*. It is often expressed even with imperative verbs, as 'Hear ye, Israel.' Sentences like 'Audi tu, populus Albanus' are common enough in Latin, and show that the *nominative* force of *tu* is sufficient to lead to the substitution of a *nominative* in apposition to it, in lieu of the vocative that might have been expected.

a sentence stands to its subject.* The predicative relation to the subject may be sustained by a verb, or by a verb of incomplete predication and its complement (see § 392). In the sentence, "The boy ran away," the verb *ran* is in the predicative relation to the subject *boy*. In the sentence, "The ball is round," not only the verb *is*, but the adjective *round*, which belongs to the predicate, is said to be in the predicative relation to the subject *ball*.

The Attributive Relation.

- 360 When we speak of anything, and connect with it the idea of some attribute that it possesses, or some circumstance respecting it, *assuming* the connexion, but not *asserting* it, the word or phrase by means of which the attribute is indicated, is said to stand in the *attributive* relation to the word which denotes the thing spoken of. Thus, in "Wise men sometimes act foolishly," the adjective *wise* stands in the attributive relation to the noun *men*. The attribute which it denotes is *assumed* to belong to the men, but it is not *asserted* of them. If we say, "The men are wise," then *wise* is in the predicative relation to *men*; the attribute is *asserted* of them. If we say, "Socrates was wise," *wise* is in the predicative relation to *Socrates*. If we say, "Socrates was a wise man," then *wise* stands in the attributive relation to the word *man*, and *wise man* stands in the predicative relation to *Socrates*.
- 361 As an attribute can only belong to a thing, it is only to substantives that words can stand in the attributive relation. Words or combinations of words, which stand in this attributive relation to a substantive, may be called *attributive adjuncts*.
- 362 Attributive adjuncts may be of the following kinds :—
1. An adjective or participle, either used simply, or accompanied by adjuncts of its own; as, "*A large apple, many men*"; "the soldier, *covered with wounds*, still kept his ground."
 2. A noun in apposition to the substantive; as, "*John Smith, the baker*, said so," or a substantive clause in apposition to some substantive, as, "the report *that he was killed*"

* A relation of this sort is, of course, reciprocal. In the sentence, "The boy ran away," while *ran* is in the predicative relation to *boy*, *boy* is in its turn in the subjective relation to *ran*. But as these are only two different modes of viewing the same grammatical combination, a separate classification is unnecessary.

is untrue," where the clause *that he was killed* is in apposition to *report*.

3. A substantive in the possessive case; as, "*My father's house*"; "*John's book*"; "*The man whose house was burnt down*," &c. Or a substantive preceded by *of*, used as the equivalent of the genitive case in any of its meanings when it was attached to a noun; as, "*One of us*"; "*The leader of the party*"; "*The love of money*."*

4. A substantive preceded by a preposition, forming what would naturally be an adverbial adjunct of an attributive word, but which through the omission of some participle or adjective has become attached directly to the noun,† as: "*A horse for riding* (i.e., '*A horse kept, or being, or suitable for riding*')"; "*A mistake to be avoided*" (i.e., '*A mistake which is to be avoided*')"; "*Water to drink*" (i.e., '*Water that is for drinking*')"; "*The trees in the garden*"; "*A time to weep*" (§ 192); "*A man on horseback*," &c. A simple adverb may be used in the same way, as: "*The house here*"; "*An outside passenger*"; "*The then state of affairs*." These may be called *quasi-attributive adjuncts* of the noun.

Under this head we may class those instances in which an adverb or adverbial prepositional phrase is attached to a noun by virtue of the idea of *action* which the noun involves,‡ as: "*Our return home*" (compare '*We returned home*'); "*His journey to Paris*" ('*he journeyed to Paris*'); "*The revolt of the Netherlands from Spain*" ('*The Netherlands revolted from Spain*'), &c.

5 An Adjective Clause. (See § 408.)

- 363 Adjectives (including participles) must always be either in the attributive, or in the predicative relation to some substantive expressed or understood. But one noun in the plural may be used distributively with two or more adjectives, provided no obvious

* One curious use of *of* is that in which it replaces the relation of apposition, as in "*The month of June*"; "*The island of Sardinia*"; "*A brute of a fellow*"; "*A milkop of a boy*." The genitive is similarly employed sometimes in Latin. On the other hand, apposition has sometimes replaced the use of *of*, as in '*A hundred sheep*'; '*A dozen yards*.' *Of* reappears when the numeral is used with the plural suffix; as "*Hundreds of pounds*"; "*Dozens of persons*."

† Similarly in Greek οἱ νῦν ἀποκτοῦντες is οἱ νῦν ὄντες ἀποκτοῦντες. As the mention of a thing presupposes its *being* (at least *notionally*, which is all that is necessary) the omission of that which indicates *being* is very easy. When a noun is used attributively (§ 362, 2) it may be qualified by an adverb just like any other attributive word, as "*This man, once the possessor of a large fortune*."

‡ It is the *notional* signification of a verb, not its predicative function, which is qualified by an adverb, or defined by an objective case. Hence participles and gerunds, which are not *predicative*, have objects and adverbs attached to them, and some nouns admit of at least an approach to the same construction.

ambiguity be produced, and the article *the* be not repeated. Thus: "He is master of the English, French, and German languages," meaning 'The English language, the French language, and the German language'; "The European and African races," meaning 'The European race and the African race,' 'The third and fourth regiments,' &c. If we say "The European and the African races," we mean 'The European races and the African races,' but 'The European and the African race' means the same as 'The European race and the African race.' But when the adjectives denote attributes that may *co-exist in the same thing*, such phrases are ambiguous. "The black and white balls" might mean 'The balls which are black and white' (parti-coloured), 'The black ball and the white ball,' or 'The black balls and the white balls.' If the first meaning is not intended, we should say, 'The black and the white ball,' or 'The black and the white balls,' according to circumstances.

- 364 When a word (not being a substantive in the possessive case) is in the attributive relation to a substantive, it must agree with it in number, gender, and case, if it is capable of expressing those distinctions by its form; as, "*This man*"; "*These men*."

- 365 Words which stand in the attributive relation to a substantive should (in English) be placed next it, except when the attributive is qualified by an adverb or adverbial phrase.*

Attributive adjectives (or participles), when used singly or accompanied by not more than a single adverb, should precede the nouns that they qualify; as, 'A black hat'; 'A very large dog'; 'A quickly passing shower'; but if they are modified by a complex adverbial adjunct, or are followed by an object, they should be placed after the noun; as, "They were implicated in the plot so fatal to their party"; "I saw a man stealing the apples."

- 365b One attributive adjunct may often be replaced by another. Thus, for "The king's palace," we may say, 'The palace of the king,' or 'The palace which belongs to the king,' or 'The palace belonging to the king,' &c. An attributive adjunct sometimes (especially in poetry) expresses a *condition*, and may be replaced by an adverbial clause. Thus, in "Foreknowledge had no influence on their fault, which had no less proved certain unforeknown" (*Milton*), *unforeknown* is equivalent to 'if it had been unforeknown.'

- 365c Attributive adjuncts may be used in two ways. (1) They may be *distinguishing* or *definitive*, as when we say, 'A black horse,' or 'Four men.' Here *black* and *four* distinguish the thing or things referred to from others comprehended under the same common name. (2) They may be *descriptive*, i.e., adding some additional description to a thing already defined by its name, or by some definitive word, as in "Louis Napoleon, *Emperor of the French*"; "Next came the king, *mounted on a white horse*." (Compare

* The following sentence, therefore, is faulty:—"The country—beyond which the arts cannot be traced of civil society or domestic life." (*Johnson, Rasselas*.) Such sentences as: "The death is announced of Mr. John Brown," are getting frequent in the newspapers, but are quite indefensible.

the definitive and continuative uses of the relative pronoun. See § 413.)

The Objective Relation.

- 366 When a verb, participle, or gerund denotes an action which is directed towards some object, the word denoting that object stands in the *objective relation* to the verb, participle, or gerund. Thus, in "The dog bites the boy," *boy* is in the objective relation to *bites*. In, "Seeing the tumult, I went out," *tumult* is in the objective relation to *seeing*. In, "Hating one's neighbour is forbidden by the Gospel," *neighbour* is in the objective relation to the gerund *hating*. The object of a verb is the word, phrase, or clause which stands for the object of the action described by the verb.*
- 367 As an action can be exerted only upon a *thing*,† it is only a *substantive*, or a phrase or clause which is equivalent to a substantive, that can stand in the objective relation to a verb, participle, or gerund. An adjective can never be the object of a verb.
- 368 When an infinitive mood is used after another verb, it always stands to the latter in the objective relation when not preceded by *to*, and very often when it has *to* before it.
- 369 The objective relation is not indicated by prepositions.‡ In declinable words the objective relation is indicated by the use of the objective case.

* This use of the term *object* is perfectly simple, intelligible, and unobjectionable. It would be better if it were the only use of it allowed in grammar. Many writers, however (following Becker), apply the term to any sort of grammatical adjunct which serves to determine or restrict the *general* application of a verb. Thus not only the direct object of a transitive verb, but the *place*, the *manner*, nay, even the *cause* of an action, are included under the name *object*. This is altogether unnatural and arbitrary, and there is not the slightest necessity for it. To say that in the sentence, "He severed the head from the body," *head* and *from the body* are both *objects of severed*, will confuse the learner rather than help him. Grammatical ideas are not simplified or arranged by being jumbled together under one title, any more than papers are sorted or classified by being bundled together into one pigeon-hole. The term *completing object* which is applied by Becker to what in this work is called the *object*, is also objectionable. If we compare such sentences as "He strikes the ball," and "He runs across the meadow," it seems obvious enough that *strikes* expresses the action in the first, quite as completely as *runs* does in the second. The description of the action as *such* is completely expressed by the verb in each case. At any rate, if *ball* is to be called the completion of the predicate in the one case, *across the meadow* should be so also in the second.

† That is, what we can make a separate object of thought.

‡ A substantive preceded by a preposition always constitutes either an attributive adjunct (§ 362, 4), or an adverbial adjunct (§ 372, 2). When the preposition is used to denote the relation of a thing to a thing (§ 277), we get an attributive adjunct; when it denotes the relation of an attribute or action of a thing to some other thing, we get an adverbial adjunct.

- 370 The objective relation is expressed by the rule, that "transitive verbs, with their imperfect participles and gerunds, govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case."

In compound sentences an entire clause may be in the objective relation to a verb, participle, or gerund.

The Adverbial Relation.

- 371 The functions of an adverb are defined in § 259. Any word, phrase, or clause which is attached to a verb or adjective to show the conditions or limitations of place, time, manner, degree, cause, effect, &c., which modify or limit an action or attribute, stands in the *adverbial relation* to the verb or adjective, and may be called an *adverbial adjunct* to it.

- 372 Adverbial adjuncts may be of the following kinds:—

1. An adverb (see § 259); as, "He fought *bravely*." "I set out *yesterday*." "He is *very* industrious."

2. A substantive preceded by a preposition; as, "He hopes *for success*." "I heard *of his arrival*." "He is sitting *on a stool*." "He killed the bird *with a stone*." "I love him *for his virtues*." "He is fond *of reading*." "He is guilty *of murder*." "All but one † were present."

The gerundial infinitive (§ 192) often forms an adverbial adjunct of a verb or adjective; e.g., "He toils *to earn a living*." "He strives *to succeed*." "We eat *to live*." "He has gone *to fetch his hat*." "This food is not fit *to eat*." "This coat is too good *to give away*." "This house is *to let* ‡ (= *for letting*)." "He is a foolish man *to throw away such a chance*." Here *to throw away*, &c., is in the adverbial

* Some grammarians hold that in these cases the verb and preposition should be taken together as forming a sort of compound transitive verb, of which the noun that follows is the object. This is inadmissible. It contradicts all analogy. It is absurd to attempt to isolate English from cognate languages, and to explain constructions common to English and several other languages by methods which, even if valid at all, would be applicable only to English. "I am speaking of you" is precisely analogous to the French, "Je parle de vous," the German "Ich spreche von dir," and the Latin "Loquor de te." Nobody would for a moment admit that *loquor de* makes a compound transitive verb, and that *de* has ceased to be a preposition and become an adverb united to the verb. It is true we can say in English, "This was spoken of;" but so can we also say, "He was taken care of," "He was promised a new coat." It will be amusing to find "to-promise-a-new-coat," "to-take-care-of," &c., set down as compound transitive verbs governing the objective case. (See § 186.)

† In Anglo-Saxon 'bātan dnum.'

‡ In Anglo-Saxon the *active voice* is always used in phrases of this sort; e.g., 'Mannes sunu ys tō syllanne on manna handa,' 'the Son of Man is to be given (to give) into the hands of men' (Matt. xvii. 22).

relation to *foolish*. An adverbial adjunct may also consist of a *substantive clause* governed by a preposition (see §§ 289, 418). *But*, followed by an infinitive mood or a clause, often forms an adverbial adjunct; as, "I would buy it but that I have no money," where '*but that—money*' forms an adverbial adjunct to *would buy*.

In many adverbial adjuncts of this class the noun preceded by the preposition *of* or *to* was formerly in the genitive or dative case, as, for example, after *full*, *clean*, *mindful*, *guilty*, *weary*, &c. Prepositional phrases have sometimes replaced direct objects, as in '*to admit of*'; '*to accept of*'; '*to dispose of*'; '*to approve of*'; &c.

3. A noun qualified by some attributive adjunct, and so forming a phrase denoting *time when*, the *measure of space* or *time*, *direction*, &c., or marking some attendant circumstance of an action; as, "He arrived *last night*." "We see him *every day*." "We stayed there *all the summer*." "He walked *ten miles*." "He lives *three miles* away." "A *hundred times* better." "Three furlongs* broad." "Go *that way*." "They advanced *sword in hand*." "They went over *dry foot*."† "The ship drove *full sail*."‡ "Day by day." "Night after night." "Step by step," &c., are adjuncts of this class. In all such expressions the noun is in the objective case, representing either a dative or an accusative case.

4. A substantive in the objective case, before which some such preposition as *to* or *for* might have been put, and which in Latin, Greek, or German would be in the dative case; as, "Give me (*i.e.*, to me) the book." "I will sing you (*i.e.*, for you) a song." "Do me (*i.e.*, for me) the favour." "Teach me Thy statutes." "You are like‡ him (*i.e.*, like to him)." This use of the objective may be called the *adverbial objective*. A noun thus used with a verb is often called the *indirect object* of the verb.§

It is perhaps under the head of the *adverbial relation* that we should class such anomalous passive constructions as, "He was taught *his lesson*." "He was paid *his bill*." "He was promised a

* In cases like this the genitive was used in Anglo-Saxon, as "*þreora furlanga brād*" (three furlongs broad). This genitive is represented in old English by *of*, as "Let a gallows be made *of fifty cubits high*" (*Esther* v. 14); "He was of eyght and thyrty yer old" (*Rob. of Gl.*). The dative was used in defining a comparative. *Much* (as in *much better*) or *little* (as in *little more*) were datives, '*miclum*' and '*lytlum*.' '*A foot taller*' means '*taller by a foot*.'

† In Anglo-Saxon these expressions would have been in the dative case.

‡ The adverb *like* may also be modified by an adverbial objective, as "He talks like a fool." *Similiter* in Latin may be accompanied by a dative.

§ See Shakspeare (*Taming of the Shrew*, i. 2) for a humorous illustration of the difference between the dative and the accusative sense of the English objective.

new coat," &c., where an objective case seems to be governed by a passive verb. The accusative case in Latin is often used adverbially to define or limit the range within which the meaning of the verb is applicable.

Generally speaking, when two objective cases are used with a verb (except in the case of verbs of incomplete predication), one of them is the *direct object*, the other an *adverbial adjunct*.*

What is often termed the *cognate accusative* (or objective) (as in 'to run a race,' 'to die a happy death') should more properly be classed among the adverbial adjuncts.† In Anglo-Saxon the dative was used in some cases, as, "Men libban þam life" (Men live *that* life); "He feaht miclum feohtum" (He fought *great* fights). See *Koch*, ii. p. 94.

5. A substantive (accompanied by some attributive adjunct) in the nominative or objective ‡ absolute; as, "*The sun having risen*, we commenced our journey." "*He being absent*, nothing could be done." A substantive clause may be used absolutely, like a simple substantive, as, "*Granted this is true*, you are still in the wrong."

Participles may be used absolutely in this manner without having any noun to be attached to (see § 282). In such a sentence as "Speaking generally, this is the case," the phrase 'speaking generally' is an adverbial adjunct of the predicate.

6. An adverbial clause.

- 373 Adverbs themselves admit of limitation or qualification as regards *degree*; as, "He writes *very badly*." "He will be here *almost immediately*."
- 374 When a noun stands in either the predicative or the attributive relation to another substantive, it may have words standing to it in the adverbial relation; as, "Napoleon, lately Emperor of the French."
- 375 The greater part of adverbial adjuncts are included in the following classification:—

* Care is necessary in distinguishing these, as the construction after a verb is not always uniform. Thus in 'He taught me Latin,' *me* answers to the dative case. In 'He taught me thoroughly,' *me* answers to the accusative.

† The cognate objective sometimes appears in a metaphorical shape, as in "to look daggers at a person"; "To rain fire and brimstone." The vague pronoun *it* is freely used in this construction, as, "We shall have to rough *it*"; "Go *it*, boys" &c.

‡ Some grammarians insist that in these constructions the objective (as the representative of the old dative) is the only proper case, and that the use of the nominative is the result of a mistake. Milton uses both constructions. Thus, "Him destroyed for whom all this was made, all this will soon follow" (*P. L.*, ix. 180); "Us dispossessed" (*P. L.*, vii. 140). On the other hand, we find, "Adam, wedded to another Eve, shall live with her enjoying, I extinct" (*P. L.*, ix. 944); "Which who knows but might as ill have happened, thou being by" (*P. L.*, ix.). Shakspeare also uses the nominative: "Thou away, the very birds are mute." When the forms admit of a choice, the nominative is preferred by modern writers. When the abbreviated participle *except* (§ 288) is used, we always find the objective case, as *all except me*. The dative was used in Anglo-Saxon.

1. *Adverbial adjuncts of Time*.—"I arrived *before his departure*"; "Come *when I bid you*"; "He slept *all day*."
2. *Adverbial adjuncts of Place*.—"He lives *over the way*"; "He still lay *where he had fallen*"; "He lives *a long way off*."
3. *Adverbial adjuncts of Manner or Circumstance*.—"You must do it *in this way*"; "You must act *as I tell you*"; "There being *nothing to see*, we came away"; "His statements are *for the most part untrue*."
4. *Adverbial adjuncts of Condition*.—"If *this is so*, the case is hopeless"; "Though *He slay me*, yet will I trust in Him"; "This being granted, the proof is easy."
5. *Adverbial adjuncts of Cause*.—"He left me *on that account*"; "He sold the horse *because he could not manage it*."
6. *Adverbial adjuncts of Consequence*.—"He that sweareth *to his own hurt*," &c.; "He was so exhausted, *that he could not stand*."

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

- 376 As both the subject and the verb of a sentence are spoken of the same thing (the subject naming or denoting it, and the verb making some assertion respecting it), they must agree with each other in those points which they have in common, otherwise there would be a mutual contradiction.
- The points which they have in common are *number* and *person*.
- 377 Hence the rule that "A verb must agree with its subject * in number and person."
- 378 The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.
- 379 Thus, the predicative relation is indicated partly by the subject of the verb being in the nominative case, and partly by the verb indicating by its inflection the same number and person as the substantive which is its subject.
- 380 There is, however, an exception to this rule. The relation of the verb to the subject is often modified to suit the *sense* of the words rather than their *form*. Hence a noun in the singular number which denotes a *multitude* (as *crowd, senate, army, flock*) may have its verb in the plural number, when the idea to be kept in view is

* It is common to say that a verb must agree with its *nominative case* in number and person. This mode of speaking is incorrect. It confounds a *substantive* with a *case*. A *case* of a substantive is a certain *form* of it; but it is obviously nonsense to talk of a verb agreeing with a *form* of a substantive. In the sentence, "I wrote the letter," *I* is not a *nominative case*, but a *pronoun in the nominative case*. Through this mischievous habit of treating *nominative case* as synonymous with *subject*, beginners in Latin, when parsing dependent sentences, are constantly betrayed into the absurdity of speaking of the subject of the dependent verb as being in the *accusative case*, because it is the *nominative* to the verb in the infinitive mood.

not the *multitude viewed as one whole*, but the *individuals of which the multitude is composed*. As, "The multitude were of one heart and one mind." But we should say, "The army *was led* into the defile," because we then speak of the army *as a whole*.

- 381 The verb is put in the plural number when it has for its subject two or more nouns in the singular coupled by the conjunction *and*;* as, "John and Thomas were walking together." But when the compound subject is considered as forming one whole, the verb is kept in the singular; as, "The mind and spirit remains invincible"; "Hill and valley rings" (*Par. L. ii.*, 495).
- 382 In English every finite verb must have a subject in the nominative case expressed or understood.† Such a sentence as, "That is the man whom I heard was ill," is faulty, because the verb *was* is left without a subject; the relative pronoun, which ought to be the subject, being wrongly put in the objective case. It should be, "That is the man who, I heard, was ill."‡ "I will give this to whosoever wants it" is faulty in a similar way. *Wants* must have *whosoever* for its subject. Besides, the preposition *to* marks a relation not to the relative pronoun, but to the antecedent *him* (understood) which is qualified by the adjective clause. Moreover, a verb must only have one subject, and one subject can only belong to one verb.§
- 383 The subject of a verb is sometimes understood as, "I have a mind presages me such thrift," for '*which presages*,' &c.; "So far as [it] in him lies"; "Do [he] what

* When nouns are connected by the preposition *with*, the verb is sometimes put in the plural, in accordance with the general sense, but in violation of the strict rule of syntax. Thus: "Gedaliah, who with his brethren and son were twelve" (1 *Chron.* xxv. 9).

† In Anglo-Saxon we find passive and other impersonal verbs used absolutely without any subject expressed or understood. Thus: "*þam ylcen dōme þe ge dēmaþ eow byð gedēmed*" (with the same judgment that ye judge to you [it] shall be judged); "*him hungrede*" (him hungered). Compare *tonat, pluīt, pugnatum est*, &c., in Latin. The word *it*, that we now use in such cases, is the mere ghost of a subject. See §§ 344, 387, note.

‡ The construction of a relative or interrogative pronoun may always be tested by that of a demonstrative pronoun used in its stead. The construction of "Whom I heard was ill" would be the same as that of "I heard him was ill."

§ An exception to this rule has the sanction of some of the best writers. Since a subordinative particle (such as *if, though, &c.*) cannot precede a relative pronoun, and yet must stand (if used) before the subject of its clause, who cannot be the subject of a hypothetical clause unless it is repeated in the shape of *he, she, it, or they*. Hence we find in Milton, "A right noble and pious lord, *who had he* not sacrificed his life and fortunes to the commonwealth," &c. "Lend it rather to thine enemy, *who if he* break, thou mayst with better face exact the penalty" (*M. of Ven.*, i. 81). This difficulty does not present itself in Latin. In *qui si dedisset, qui* is the subject of *dedisset*.

he will, he cannot make matters worse." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted.

Subject.

- 384 The subject of a sentence may be simple, compound, or complex.
- 385 The subject of a sentence is *simple* when it consists of a single substantive, or a simple infinitive mood; as, "*I love truth*"; "*Men are mortal*"; "*To err is human*." (See § 352.)
- 386 The subject of a sentence is *compound* when it consists of two or more substantives coupled together by the conjunction *and*; as, "*Cæsar and Pompey were rivals*." "*You and I will travel together*." * The conjunctions *either, or, neither, nor*, do not couple substantives together so as to form a compound subject. They imply that *one* of two alternatives is to be taken, not that the assertion can be made of both subjects *simultaneously*. The sentence is not simple, but compound and contracted (§ 445). Hence the verb is put in the plural only when the subject which is the nearer to it is in the plural; as, "*Neither John nor Thomas has arrived*"; "*Either he or his brothers were in fault*."
- 387 The subject of a sentence is *complex* when it consists of an infinitive phrase,† of a substantive clause, or of a quotation; as, "*To love our enemies is a Christian duty*"; "*How to do it is the question*"; "*That he said so is certain*"; "*England expects every man to do his duty, was Nelson's watchword*." A complex subject is very often anticipated‡ by means of the neuter pronoun *it*, as,

* Many grammarians insist that in cases of this kind we are to regard the sentence as a contraction of two co-ordinate sentences joined by *and*. This explanation might do very well for such a sentence as, "*John and William are eleven years old*"; that is, "*John is eleven years old, and William is eleven years old*"; but it is simply absurd when applied to such a sentence as, "*Two and three make five*," or, "*He and I are of the same age*"; "*Blue and yellow make green*," &c. Be it observed, *we have no right to alter the phraseology of the predicate*. It is obvious, on the face of the thing, that what we have to deal with is not two verbs in the singular, but *one verb in the plural*. Similar remarks apply to the case of two objects of a verb, or two nouns after a preposition, when they are coupled by the conjunction *and*; as, "*He drank a glass of brandy and water*." (See § 287.)

† In old English the infinitive in such phrases is often without the *to*, as, "*Me chaunced of a knight encountered be*" (*Spenser*, l. 2); "*To know my deed 'twere best not know myself*" (*Macb.*, ii. 2); "*Better be with the dead*."

‡ This is especially the case with the impersonal verbs, such as, *it repents me*, *it becomes you*, &c. These verbs were formerly much more numerous, as, *it glads me*, *it pities me*, &c. They were often used without *it* (or *his*), as, "*me forthinketh*" (*it repents me*); "*me shameth that*, &c."; "*me remembreth of the day of dome*" (*Chaucer*); "*me douteth of the truth*" (*Wiclif*). See § 382, note 1.

"It is certain that he said so"; "It is wicked to tell lies." In such cases the complex subject is in apposition to the word *it* (§ 398). A pronoun is often used pleonastically to repeat a simple subject, as "The Lord, He is God"; "The green boughs, they wither." The word *there* in such sentences as, "There was a man of the Pharisees," cannot be taken as being anything else than an adverb. It is not the subject of the verb. It answers to the adverb *y* in the French phrase "*Il y a*." Its force, however, has almost evaporated.*

- 388 The subject of a sentence may have any attributive adjunct attached to it † (see §§ 360, 362); as, "*This tree* is dead." "*The man* told a lie." "*Good men* love virtue." "*Edward the Black Prince* did not succeed his father." "*John's coat* is torn." "*The defenders of the city* were slain." "*The brave old man* died maintaining his innocence." "*The general, having reviewed his troops*, advanced to meet the enemy." If the subject is a verb in the infinitive mood, or a gerund, it may be accompanied by objective or adverbial adjuncts; as, "To rise early is healthful"; "To love one's enemies is a Christian duty"; "Playing with fire is dangerous."

Predicate.

- 389 The predicate of a sentence is either simple or complex.
 390 The predicate of a sentence is simple when the notion to be conveyed is expressed by a single finite verb; as, "Virtue flourishes." "Time flies." "I love."
 391 Many verbs do not make complete sense by themselves, but require some other word to be used with them to make the sense complete. Of this kind are the intransitive verbs *be, become, grow, seem, can, do, shall, will, &c.*, and such transitive verbs as *make, call, deem, think*. To say, "The horse is," "The light becomes," "I can," or "I think the man," makes no sense. It is requisite to use some other word or phrase (a substantive, an adjective, or a verb in the infinitive) with the verb; as, "The horse is black." "The light becomes dim," "I can write." "William the Norman became King of England." "I think the man insane." "It made the man mad." "He was made king."

* In German the neuter pronoun *es* is used in such phrases. In old English *hit* (i.e., *it*) was sometimes used instead of *there*.

† In such cases the subject is sometimes said to be *enlarged*. The term is a bad one, because the grammatical subject is not enlarged, but *restricted*, by the use of adjuncts, at least as regards its comprehension. *Men* includes more than *wise men*.

Verbs of this kind are called *Verbs of incomplete Predication*, and the words used with them to make the predication complete may be called the *complement of the predicate*.^{*} The complement may consist of any attributive adjunct (§ 362), as e.g., 'The earth is *the Lord's*,' 'The coat was of *many colours*.'

Verbs which are capable of forming simple predicates are often followed by complements, being verbs of incomplete predication *so far as the matter in hand is concerned*. Thus *live* is not always and necessarily a verb of incomplete predication, but in the sentence, "He lived happy ever afterwards," the predicate is *lived happy*, and *happy* forms a (subjective) complement to *lived*, which, therefore, is, *so far*, a verb of incomplete predication. So in "They went along singing," *singing* is the complement of *went*; in "He stood gazing on the scene," *gazing* is the (subjective) complement of *stood*. In "He made a mistake," *made* is a verb of complete predication; in "He made his father angry," *made* is a verb of incomplete predication, and requires the (objective) complement *angry* to make the sense complete.

392 The predicate of a sentence is complex when it consists of a verb of incomplete predication accompanied by its complement.

393 When a verb of incomplete predication is passive or intransitive, the complement of the predicate (if it be an adjective or substantive) stands in the predicative relation to the subject of the sentence; as, "He is called John." "The wine tastes sour." "He feels sick." This kind of complement may be termed the *Subjective Complement*, inasmuch as it is closely connected with the *subject* of the sentence.

In such sentences as 'It is I,' we must regard *it* as the subject, and *I* as the complement of the predicate; '*it* (i.e., 'the person you have in mind,' &c.) is *I*.' In Anglo-Saxon this was reversed. We find "gyf þu hyt eart," *if thou art it* (*Matt. xiv. 28*); "Ic hyt eom," *I it am* (*Matt. xiv. 27*). Afterwards we find the *it* omitted, as, "gif thou art" (*Matt. xiv. 28*); "I my silf am" (*Luke xxiv. 39*).

A verb is an *attributive* word (§ 294), and an infinitive mood or infinitive phrase is often used instead of an adjective as a subjective complement, as, "He seems to have

^{*} I find that this use of the term *complement* is adopted by Koch. The complement follows a verb, not in its *predicative*, but in its *attributive* character (§ 294). Hence participles and infinitive moods may have complements attached to them, as, "*Feeling sick*"; "He strove to become rich."

forgotten me." If the infinitive thus used is itself a verb of incomplete predication, it may be followed by a complement, which may be called the *secondary complement*. Thus, in "He appears to be honest," *to be* is the complement of *appears*, and *honest* the complement of *to be*.

The complement of the predicate in these cases is spoken of the subject, and must therefore agree with the subject in all that they can have in common. Hence the rule that the verbs *be*, *become*, *feel*, *be called*, &c., take the same case after them as before them. The objective complement with an active verb becomes the subjective complement of the passive, as, "He cut the matter short," "The matter was cut short."

- 394 An adverb or adverbial phrase never forms the complement of a predicate. A substantive clause may be used as a complement, just like a simple substantive, as, "My advice is *that you do not meddle with the matter*."
- 395 When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the complement of the predicate stands in the attributive relation to the object of the verb; as, "He dyed the cloth red." "She called the man a liar." This kind of complement may be termed the *Objective Complement*, inasmuch as it is closely connected with the *object* of the verb.

In such sentences as "He dyed the cloth red"; "He found the man dead," the adjective distinguishes the thing referred to not from other things of the same class, but *from itself under other circumstances*. The mode in which the complement attaches itself to the verb may be illustrated by the way in which the perfect participle is used in the perfect tense, as 'I have written' (where the participle used to agree with the *object*; see § 198), and by the passive form, "The cloth *was dyed red*," &c.

In 'I made him run,' the verb *run*, though in the infinitive mood, is still an *attributive* word, and has the same relation to *him*, as the adjectives in the preceding examples. In old English the participle was often used in these cases, as, "To mak the Inglis *fleand*," *to make the English fly* (P. Langtoft, in Koch, ii. p. 101).

The third kind of complement is that which follows such verbs as *can*, *will*, *must*, &c., as "I can write," "He must go." This may be termed the *infinitive complement*, or *complementary infinitive*. The *object* of the sentence is often attached to the dependent infinitive.*

* The *complementary infinitive* must be carefully distinguished from the *objective* and the *adverbial infinitive*. In "He seems to know me," *to know* is the complement of *seems*. In "I rejoice to know" (i.e., at knowing), *to know* is an *adverbial infinitive*. In "Permit me to say," *to say* is the *object* of *permit*, *me* being the *indirect object* of the verb.

- 396 A predicative verb may have any objective or adverbial adjuncts attached to it. In such cases it is sometimes said to be *enlarged* (see note on § 388).

Object.

- 397 The object of a verb may be either simple, compound, or complex. These distinctions are the same as in the case of the subject (see §§ 386—388). There is also a peculiar kind of complex object, in which a substantive clause is replaced by a substantive followed by a verb in the infinitive mood. Thus, for “I wish *that you may succeed*,” we may have “I wish *you to succeed*”; for “I believe *that the man is guilty*,” we may have “I believe *the man to be guilty*.” In such sentences as “I saw him fall,” “I heard the dog bark,” the construction is of the same kind.* It is analogous to that of the accusative with the infinitive in Latin.
- 398 When the object of a verb is complex, it is often preceded by the word *it*, to which it then stands in apposition, as, “I think *it* foolish to act so,” “I think *it* is a pity that he should waste so much time.” In such cases the predicate is complex. Compare § 387.
- 399 The object of a verb, and the complement of a predicate, may have objective, attributive, or adverbial adjuncts attached to them (see note on § 388).

Complex Sentences.

- 400 A Complex Sentence is one which, besides a principal subject and predicate, contains one or more subordinate clauses, which have subjects and predicates of their own.
- 401 Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds:—Substantive Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses.
- A Substantive Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to a substantive.
- An Adjective Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adjective or an attributive adjunct.
- An Adverbial Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adverb, or an adverbial adjunct.
- 402 A complex sentence is produced whenever the place of a

* This construction is closely analogous to that of the objective complement. The verb in the infinitive is *attributive* with respect to its subject, as we see from the passive construction, ‘He was believed to be guilty’; ‘It was made stand upon the feet’ (*Dan.* iii. 4), &c.

substantive, an attributive adjunct, or an adverbial adjunct is supplied by a substantive clause, an adjective clause, or an adverbial clause.

If we say, "He announced the arrival of Cæsar," we get a simple sentence, containing only one subject and one predicate. If we say, "He announced that Cæsar had arrived," we get a complex sentence, the substantive clause *that Cæsar had arrived* being substituted for the substantive (with its attributive adjunct) *the arrival of Cæsar*.

If we say, "He has lost the book given to him by me," we have a simple sentence. If we say, "He has lost the book which I had given to him," we get a complex sentence, the adjective clause *which I had given to him* being substituted for the attributive adjunct *given to him by me*.

If we say, "The boy went out to play on the completion of his task," we get a simple sentence, containing one subject and one finite verb. If we say, "The boy went out to play when he had completed his task," we get a complex sentence, the adverbial clause *when he had completed his task*, which contains a subject and predicate of its own, being substituted for the adverbial adjunct *on the completion of his task*.

It must never be forgotten that a dependent or subordinate clause is an integral part of the principal sentence to which it belongs, just as though it were an ordinary substantive, adjective, or adverb.* Subordinate clauses are attached to the principal clause by means of connective or relative pronouns (§ 145), connective or relative adverbs (§ 204), and subordinative conjunctions (§ 288).

Substantive Clauses.

- 403 A Substantive Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to a substantive. It may be either the subject or the object of the verb in the principal clause, or it may be in apposition to some other substantive, or be governed by a preposition. Thus, in the sentence, "I know that he did this," the clause, "*that he did this*," is the object of the verb *know*. In "He asked how old I was," the clause "*how old I was*" is the object of the verb *asked*.† In "When I set out is uncertain," the clause, "*when I set out*" is the subject of the verb *is*. In "The idea that he would be reduced to poverty rendered him miserable," the clause "*that he would be reduced to*

* Many books on the analysis of sentences quite ignore this most important point, to the great bewilderment of their young readers. The subordinate clause must have its construction in the entire sentence as strictly and precisely indicated, as if it were a single word. Phrases like 'Noun sentences to I.,' 'Adjective sentence to II.,' &c., are quite unmeaning. An adjective clause cannot bear the relation of an adjective to a sentence. It is attached to some definite substantive in the sentence.

† In cases of this sort we get what is termed an *indirect question*. In Anglo-Saxon the verb in an indirect question was in the subjunctive mood.

poverty" is in apposition to the noun *idea*. In "We should have arrived sooner, but that we met with an accident," the clause "*that we met with an accident*" is governed by the preposition *but*. In "In that He himself hath suffered, being tempted, He is able also to succour them that are tempted" (*Heb. ii. 18*), the preposition *in* governs* a substantive clause. (Look carefully at § 289, note †.)

A substantive clause may also follow a phrase which, *taken as a whole*, is equivalent to a transitive verb. Thus: "He other means doth make, How he may work unto her further smart," where 'make means' = *endeavour*, or *try*. So '*I am afraid that he will not succeed*' is equivalent to '*I fear that he will not succeed*.'†

- 404 When a substantive clause is the subject of the verb of the principal clause, the sentence is commonly formed by using the word *it* as the *grammatical* subject of the principal verb, and putting the substantive clause after the main clause. In this case the substantive clause is *in apposition* to the subject of the main verb. As, "*It is not true that he died yesterday.*" (See § 387.)

- 405 It is to verbs that substantives and substantive clauses most commonly stand in the objective relation. This has nothing to do with the *predicative* force of the verb, but depends upon the fact that the verb denotes an action or feeling directed towards an object. Participles and gerunds take objects after them, and even some nouns which denote a transitive action or feeling may have a substantive clause as an object. Thus, 'There is no *proof* that he did this'; 'We have no hope that he will recover'; 'He did this on *purpose* that he might ruin me.'

- 406 Substantive clauses usually begin either with the conjunction *that*, or with an interrogative word.‡ The conjunction *that*, however, is frequently understood; as "I saw *he was tired*."

Adjective Clauses.

- 408 An Adjective Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adjective. It stands

* In such cases the preposition and the substantive clause governed by it constitute together an adverbial adjunct of the predicate, just like a preposition and noun (§ 372, 2). *What* is sometimes improperly substituted for *that*, as, 'I had no idea but *what* the story was true'; and *that* is sometimes omitted, as, 'It never rains but it pours' (i.e., 'leaving out the times when it pours, it never rains'); 'But I be deceived, our fine musician groweth amorous' (*Shaksp., Tam., iii. 1*). In these cases the *but* acquires the function of a conjunction (§ 289, note †). See further §§ 515-517, 522.

† It is also possible to treat the substantive clause in such cases as being analogous to the adverbial accusative, or accusative of closer definition in Latin. Thus, "I am sorry that you are not well" is 'I am sorry *as regards the fact* that you are not well.'

‡ Interrogatives are also used with verbs in the infinitive mood to constitute a substantive phrase, as 'I do not know *where to go*' (§ 387).

in the attributive relation to a substantive, and is attached to the word which it qualifies, by means of a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition. Thus, in the sentence, "Look at the exercise which I have written," the clause "*which I have written*" qualifies the noun *exercise*. In "The man with whom you dined yesterday is dead," the clause "*with whom you dined yesterday*" qualifies the noun *man*. In the sentence, "That is the house where I dwell," the clause "*where I dwell*" qualifies the noun *house*, *where* being equivalent to *in which*. In the sentence, "Autumn is the time when fruits ripen," the clause "*when fruits ripen*" qualifies the noun *time*, *when* being equivalent to *in which*.* "I return to view where once the cottage stood" = 'to view [the place] *in which*,' &c.

- 409 The relative is sometimes omitted, as, "Where is the book *I gave you?*" for *which I gave you*; "I have a mind *presages me such thrift*," &c., for *which presages*, &c.; "They are envious *term thee parasite*," for *who term*, &c. In modern English this omission of the relative is hardly permissible unless the relative, if expressed, would be in the objective case, except after a simple assertion or denial of the existence or identity of something (as in 'There is nothing vexes him more'; 'It was John told me'), or when the relative would be the complement of the predicate (as, 'He is no longer the man he was').

Sometimes adjective clauses are used substantively, i.e., with no antecedent expressed, as, "Who steals my purse, steals trash." This omission of the antecedent is usual when the relative *what* is used, as, "I heard *what* he said," "There is no truth in *what* he said."

- 410 Care must be used to distinguish those clauses in which an indirect question is involved in the use of *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, &c., from clauses in which these words are mere *relatives*. In such sentences as, "Tell me *what* I ought to do," "I asked him *who* said so," "I know *why* he did it," "He asked me *when* I had arrived," the dependent clauses are indirect questions, and are substantive clauses, having no antecedent expressed or understood to which they relate. In "That is *what* I said," "This is *where* I live," the dependent clauses are adjective clauses. The distinction is analogous to that between clauses beginning with *quis* or *quid*, in Latin, and clauses beginning with *qui* or *quod*.
- 411 Adjective clauses are very often co-ordinate with the demonstrative adjectives *this*, *that*,† &c. In such cases the demonstrative word is

* So in Latin *unde* often means *from whom*, or *from which*; *ubi* is *at which*, &c.

† In the same way, in Latin, adjective clauses beginning with *qui*, *qualis*, *quantus*, and *quot*, qualify the same substantive as a preceding *is*, *talis*, *tantus*, or *tot*, and are co-ordinate with them. In "Non tales miror libros *quales* scribit," the clause *quales scribit* is an attributive adjunct to *libros* equally with *tales*. Compare the author's *Analysis of Sentences applied to Latin*, § 110, &c. Abbott's *Shakespearean Grammar*, p. 64.

simply preparatory to the adjective clause by which its own import is more fully explained. Thus in the sentence, "I never received those books which you sent," the adjective *those* and the adjective clause *which you sent* are both in the attributive relation to *books*, and are co-ordinate* with each other.

- 412 Clauses beginning with *as* must be regarded as adjective clauses, when they follow *such* and *same*. The *as* must be considered not exactly as a relative pronoun, but as doing duty for a relative (see note on § 264). Thus, in "I do not admire such books as he writes," the clause *as he writes* is an adjective clause qualifying *books*, and co-ordinate with *such*. In old English we find *which* or *that*, instead of *as*; as, "Such which must go before" (*Bacon*); "Thou speakest to such a man that is no fleeing tell-tale" (*Shakspeare, J. C.*).

- 413 An adjective clause (like an ordinary adjective) has usually a determinative or restrictive force. But it often happens that clauses introduced by relatives, although in *form* they are adjective, are, as regards their *force* and *meaning*, co-ordinate† with the principal clause. Such a clause is *continuative* rather than *determinative*. Thus, in "I wrote to your brother, who replied that you had not arrived," the sense of the sentence would be the same if *and he* were substituted for *who*. Sentences beginning with *which* must often be treated as co-ordinate with the preceding clause, when *which* relates not to any one substantive, but to the general import of the clause, as, "He heard that the bank had failed, which was a sad blow to him"; "He was not at home; for which reason I could not give him your message."

The continuative relative may even belong in reality to an adverbial clause‡ contained *within the entire clause* which it introduces. Thus:—"Which when Beelzebub perceived . . . he rose" (*Par. L., ii. 299*), equivalent to "And when Beelzebub perceived this, — he rose." "Which though I be not wise enough to frame, Yet as I well it meane, vouchsafe it without blame" (*Spenser, vi. 4, 34*), i.e., 'And though I be not wise enough to frame this,' &c. Modern writers rather eschew these constructions.

When the relative is in the objective case, it is not always (in English) the object of the first finite verb that follows it. Phrases like 'A promise which he would have given worlds to recall'; 'The game which he spent the morning in shooting,' are admissible, but must be used with caution.§

Adverbial Clauses.

- 414 An Adverbial Clause is one which, in its relation to the

* This point is of importance, as it indicates the correct mode of dealing with correlative adverbs.

† In these cases a difficulty occurs when the relative is in the nominative case, which can only be met by repeating the subject (pleonastically) by the use of *he, she, it, or they*. See note || on § 382.

‡ Compare the difference between *definitive* and *descriptive* attributive adjuncts (§ 385c).

§ Many writers, who ought to know better, blunder terribly in the attempt to turn an adjective clause into the reported form. 'That is the man who was so ill' is often modified into 'That is the man whom I heard was so ill.' This is altogether wrong. (See § 382.) The only way of meeting the difficulty is to turn 'I heard' into a parenthesis, 'who (I heard) was ill.'

- rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adverb. It stands in the adverbial relation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Thus, in the sentence "He was writing a letter when I arrived," the clause "*when I arrived*" indicates the time at which the action expressed by the verb *was writing* took place. The clause "*when I arrived*" is therefore in the adverbial relation to the verb *was writing*. The sense and construction may be represented by a single adverb: "He was writing a letter; I arrived *then*." So, "He still lay *where he had fallen*;" *i.e.*, "He had fallen [somewhere]: he still lay *there*." "I give you this *because I love you*;" *i.e.*, "I love you; *therefore* I give you this."
- 415 Adverbial clauses admit of the same classification as ordinary adverbial adjuncts. (See § 375.)

1.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Time.

- 416 Clauses of this kind begin either with the relative adverbs which denote time (see § 265), or with the conjunctions *before*, *after*, *while*, *since*, *ere*, *until*, &c. (see §§ 288c, 289). As, "Every one listens *when he speaks*." "I was glad *when he had finished*." "He read *while I wrote*." "He punished the boy *whenever he did wrong*." "He never spoke *after he fell*." It must be observed that when relative adverbs introduce adverbial clauses, they not only connect the adverbial clause with the principal clause, but themselves qualify the verb of the clause which they introduce.

2.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Place.

- 419 Clauses of this kind are introduced by the relative adverbs *where*, *whither*, *whence*, &c. As, "He is still standing *where I left him*." "*Whither I go* ye cannot come." "*Whithersoever I went* he followed me." "Let me alone, that I may take comfort a little *before I go whence I shall not return*." The relative adverbs connect the dependent clauses with the main clause, and at the same time qualify the verbs of the dependent clauses themselves.

3.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner.

- 420 Adverbial clauses relating to manner are commonly introduced by the relative or connective adverb *as*. *E.g.*, "He did *as he was told*." "It turned out *as I expected*." Here the dependent clauses qualify the verbs of the main sentences, while the adverb *as* refers to the manner of the action spoken of in the dependent clauses themselves. Clauses beginning with *as* are generally elliptical. At full length the above would be, "He did *as he was told to do*."

4.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Degree.

- 421 Clauses of this kind are introduced by the adverbs *than*, *the* (§ 270), and *as*.
As degree is an idea which attaches not to actions (*per se*), but to attributes of things, and to the mode or manner of actions, adverbial clauses denoting *degree* are always attached to adjectives or adverbs. They are almost always elliptical. (See note, § 264.)

- 422 *E.g.*, "He is not so (or as) tall as I thought" (*i.e.*, as I thought *he was tall*). Here the clause "as I thought [he was tall]" qualifies (or is in the adverbial relation to) the adjective *tall*, and is co-ordinate* with the demonstrative adverb *so*; and the relative adverb *as* at the beginning of the adverbial clause qualifies the adjective *tall* understood.

"He is taller than his brother;" *i.e.*, "He is taller than his brother [is tall]." † "I love study more than ever [I loved it much]." The real force of clauses beginning with *than* has been already explained (See note † on § 264). *Than* originally meant *when*. The clause beginning with *than* is in the adverbial relation to the predicate of the main clause, and *than* is in the adverbial relation to the predicate of its own clause.‡

"The more I learn, the more I wish to learn." Here the adverbial sentence "*the more I learn*" qualifies the comparative *more* in the main clause, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *the* which precedes it; the word *more* in the adverbial clause being itself qualified by the relative adverb *the*. (See § 270.) The first *the* is relative or subordinative, the second *the* is demonstrative.

5.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause. •

- 423 Clauses of this kind usually begin with the conjunctions *because* and *for*.

E.g., "I love him because he is good." Here "*because he is good*" is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *love*.

"He could not have seen me, for I was not there." Here "*for I was not there*" is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *could*.

6.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Purpose and Consequences.

- 424 Clauses of this kind are commonly co-ordinate with the adverb *so* expressed or understood.

E.g., "He ran so fast *that he was out of breath*." Here the adverbial clause "*that he was out of breath*" stands in the adverbial relation to *fast*, and is co-ordinate with *so*, the indefinite meaning of which it amplifies and defines.

- 425 Adverbial clauses relating to *purpose* come also under this head. *E.g.*, "He labours *that he may become rich*." Here the adverbial clause qualifies the verb *labours*. "I will not make a noise, *lest I should disturb you*." Here the adverbial clause qualifies the verb *make*.

* In like manner adjective clauses are often used as co-ordinate with a demonstrative adjective, the vague meaning of which they indicate more precisely (§ 411), and adverbial clauses of other kinds are often co-ordinate with some preceding demonstrative adverb, the vague signification of which they determine, as when *then* is accompanied by a clause beginning with *when*, *there*, by a clause beginning with *where*, &c.

† That we must understand the adjective *tall* as well as the verb *is*, will easily be seen if it be considered that every clause or subordinate sentence must have a predicate as well as a subject. If then we ask what is predicated of *his brother*, the answer obviously is, *being tall*.

‡ The subordinate clause is attached grammatically to the verb of the main clause; but logically it modifies that verb only after the comparative adjective or adverb which all belonging to it has been attached to the predicate. In other words, the subordinate clause qualifies, not the grammatical, but the logical predicate of the main clause. The Latin *quam* means (not 'when,' but) 'in what degree,' 'by how much.' *Disior est quam ego* means 'in what degree I [am rich] he is richer.'

- 426 These adverbial clauses beginning with *that* were originally substantive clauses in apposition to a preceding demonstrative *that*.* Consequently the *that* at the beginning is not an *adverb*, but the *conjunction*—the sign of grammatical subordination (§ 289).

7.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition.

- 427 Clauses of this kind begin with the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *except*, *though*, *although*, and the compounds of *ever* (*however*, *whoever*, *whatsoever*, &c.).†
- 428 In adverbial clauses of *condition*, the principal sentence is called the *consequent clause* (i.e., the clause which expresses the *consequence*); the subordinate sentence is called the *hypothetical clause* (i.e., the clause which expresses the *hypothesis*, *supposition*, or *concession*).
- 429 Suppositions or hypotheses may be made respecting two sorts of events :—
1. Events which are certain in themselves, but respecting the occurrence of which we are uncertain.
 2. Events which are contingent or uncertain in themselves, and not merely as regards our knowledge of them.
- 430 With respect to events present or past, and therefore certain in themselves, we may make two kinds of supposition :—1. Suppositions that may be consistent with the actual fact. 2. Suppositions contrary to the actual (known) fact.
- 431 1. When a supposition is made about an event which is certain in itself, but respecting the occurrence of which we are uncertain, the indicative mood is used in the hypothetical clause whenever the form of the hypothesis implies that the supposed case may be consistent with actual fact.
- 433 *Examples*.—"If the prisoner committed the crime, he deserves death. If he did not commit it, all the witnesses have sworn falsely." "If he is at home, I shall see him." "If your exercise is finished, bring it to me." "If you have read the book, return it to the owner." "He has arrived by this time, unless he has met with some accident." "He deserves our pity, unless his tale is a false one."‡
- 434 In like manner *concessive clauses* (i.e., clauses in which something is *granted*) beginning with *though* or *although*, which relate to what *actually is* or *was the case*, have the indicative mood; as, "Though he

* E.g., "þæs lang þæt" = *that long that*, &c.; "to þæs heard þæt" = *to that [degree] hard, that*; "to þam fæst þæt" = *to that [degree] strong, that*, &c.; "hig nāmon stānas tō þam þæt hig woldon hine tordian" = *they took up stones to that [intent] that they might stone him* (John viii. 59). As the adverb *so* means much the same as 'to that [degree]', these substantive clauses came to be used in apposition to *so*, and to *such*, which is a compound of *so*.

† Sentences of this kind present considerable difficulty, because the practice of the best writers is not quite uniform or consistent, and common usage tolerates in some cases a departure from what is required by the principles of grammatical construction.

‡ This is the present usage: but in old-fashioned English it is common to find the subjunctive mood in hypothetical sentences of this kind. E.g., "If I have done this, if there be iniquity in my hands," &c. "If it be so, our God is able to deliver us" (Daniel iii. 17). "If it be Thou, bid me to come to Thee on the water" (Matt. xiv. 28). The subjunctive may be employed whenever an event is regarded as a mere subjective hypothesis,—a mere *conception*, without being referred to any actual state of things.

was there, I did not see him." "Although he is rich, he is not contented." "Bad as the accommodation is, we must put up with it."

- 435 2. When a supposition is made which is contrary to some known fact, present or past, the subjunctive mood is used both in the hypothetical and in the consequent clause, the past indefinite tense* of the subjective being used in the hypothetical clause with reference to present time, and the past perfect with reference to past time. In the consequent clause the secondary past indefinite subjunctive (or *conditional*), is used after a supposition referring to present time, and the secondary form of the past perfect subjunctive (or *conditional perfect*) after a supposition relating to past time.

Examples.—"If he were present (which he *is* not), I would speak to him." "If he had confessed his fault (which he *did* not *do*), I should have forgiven him." "If he were not idle (which he *is*), he would make rapid progress." "If our horse had not fallen down (which he *did*), we should not have missed the train."

- 436 In old-fashioned English and in poetry we also find the past perfect subjunctive used in the consequent clause, instead of the secondary form (or *conditional perfect*); as, "I *had fainted* unless I had believed to see the goodness of the Lord."

- 437 Clauses expressing a *wish* contrary to the fact have also the subjunctive mood. Thus, "I wish that he *were* here (which he *is* not)." "Would that this had never happened (but it *did* happen)."

- 439 Suppositions with regard to the future are of two kinds:—

1. In making a hypothesis we may at the same time imply that the matter will be decided, one way or the other, before the time referred to in the consequent clause. In strictness, the future tense of the indicative mood should be used in the hypothetical clause, and the future indicative (or the imperative mood) in the consequent clause. *E.g.*, "If we *shall say*, From heaven, he will say, Why then did ye not believe him? But if we *shall say*, Of men; they feared the people" (*Mark xi. 31*). "If they *shall enter* into my rest" (*Heb. iv. 5*).

Custom, however, in such cases as the above, sanctions the use of the present indicative in the hypothetical clause. *E.g.*, "If it *rains* to-morrow, we shall be unable to go out." "If he *does* not arrive before next week, he will be too late."

When the event supposed is regarded as a mere *conception*, the subjunctive mood is employed. *E.g.*, "Though He slay me, yet will I trust in Him." "Though hand *join* in hand, the wicked shall not go unpunished." "If this *be* granted, the proof will be easy." "If thy right eye *offend* thee, pluck it out."

- 440 2. In making a supposition with regard to the future, we may make a pure hypothesis, and state its consequence, without connecting with it the idea that the matter will be decided one way or the other. In this case the subjunctive mood must be used both in the hypothetical and in the consequent clause. As regards the *tense* of the verbs used, we may have, in the consequent clause, either the past indefinite tense of the subjunctive, or the secondary conditional form.

* It seems anomalous to have a *past* tense in any mood referring to *present* time; but the idiom is found in French, German, Latin, and Greek. In French and Greek we even have a *past* tense of the indicative mood used in sentences of this kind. (The verb *be* is of great value as a criterion for the *mood* in English.)

In the hypothetical clause we may have the past indefinite or the conditional, or the past indefinite subjunctive of the verb *be* followed by the indefinite mood.

Examples.—"If he were rewarded, he would be encouraged to persevere." "If he should succeed (or if he succeeded) in his endeavours, he would be happy." "If he went (or should go) away without speaking to me, I should be grieved." "If he lost (or should lose) his money, he would never be happy again." "He could not (or would not be able to) do it if he tried (or were to try)." "If it were done when 'tis done, then it were well it were done quickly." "I would not believe it unless I saw (or should see) it." "If he were to fail, it would be a great disgrace."

- 441 In suppositions the conjunction *if* is often omitted. *E.g.*, "Had I known this (*i.e.*, If I had known this), I would not have come." "Were it not so (*i.e.*, if it were not so), I would have told you." "Could I have foreseen (*i.e.*, if I could have foreseen) this, I would have acted otherwise."
- 442 An interrogative or imperative sentence is sometimes used in such a way as to be equivalent to a hypothetical clause. *E.g.*, "Is any afflicted (*i.e.*, if any one is afflicted), let him pray. Is any merry (*i.e.*, if any is merry), let him sing psalms." "Take any form but that, and my firm nerves shall never tremble."

Compound Sentences.

- 443 A compound sentence is one which consists of two or more co-ordinate principal sentences, joined together by co-ordinate conjunctions, as "He is happy, but I am not"; "John is clever, and Richard is industrious"; "They toil not, neither do they spin"; "Either you are mad or you are drunk." Co-ordinate clauses are grammatically independent of each other, whereas every subordinate clause is a *component part* of some other clause or sentence. They are either simply *coupled* together (as, "You are rich and your brother is poor"), or coupled and at the same time *opposed* to each other (as, "He is not clever, but he studies hard"). In the former case they are said to be in the *copulative* relation to each other, in the latter case in the *adversative* relation.
- 444 The co-ordinate members of a compound sentence may themselves be complex sentences, as (a), "I will tell your brother when I see him, but (b) I do not think that he will arrive this week."

N.B.—The conjunction itself does not enter into the construction of the clause which it introduces.

Contracted Sentences.

- 445 When co-ordinate sentences contain either the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, the same complement, or the same adverbial adjunct to the predicate, it often happens that the portion which they have in common is ex-

pressed only once. In this case the compound sentence is said to be *contracted*.

Examples.—"Neither I nor you have seen that"; i.e., "Neither I [have seen that,] nor you have seen that." "He loved not wisely, but too well"; i.e., "He loved not wisely, but [he loved] too well." In these contracted sentences the predicate is expressed only once.*

"He stole a purse, and was convicted of the theft"; i.e., "He stole a purse, and [he] was convicted of the theft." "Religion purifies and ennobles the soul"; i.e., "Religion purifies and [religion] ennobles the soul." In these contracted sentences the subject is expressed only once.

"He is either drunk or mad"; i.e., "Either he is drunk or [he is] mad." Here the subject and the verb of incomplete predication *is* are expressed only once.

"He advances slowly but surely"; i.e., "He advances slowly, but [he advances] surely." Here the common subject and predicate are expressed only once.

"He reads and writes well"; i.e., "He reads [well] and [he] writes well." Here the common subject and the common adverbial adjunct are expressed only once.

- 446 Contracted sentences ought always to be so constructed, that when arranged without conjunctions, so that what is common to both or all is placed before or after what is not common, the common and separate portions, when read off continuously, make complete sense. Thus, "Religion purifies and ennobles the soul," may be written—

Religion { purifies
 ennobles } the soul;

and complete sentences are obtained when the parts that are common, and written once, are read with each of the separate portions in succession. So, "He gave me not only some good advice, but also a sovereign," may be arranged thus—

He gave me { not only his blessing
 also a sovereign.

"He possesses greater talents, but is less esteemed than his brother,"—

He { possesses greater talents
 is less esteemed } than his brother.

If we take such a sentence as, "Man never is but always to be blest," and subject it to this test, we see in a moment that it is faulty—

Man { never is
 always to be } blest,

cannot be read off both ways.

- 447 It has been already remarked (§ 387, note) that a sentence is not necessarily a contracted sentence because we find co-ordinative con-

* The predicate which is expressed must, of course, agree with the nearer of the two subjects. The predicate which is not expressed may have to be modified when supplied to suit its own subject. Thus, "Neither you nor I am right"; "Neither you nor your brother is in fault."

junctions used in it. "John and Charles are brothers," is as much one sentence as "These two boys are brothers." One predication may be made of two things taken together. "The child has a red and white ball," does not mean "The child has a red ball, and the child has a white ball." The attributes *coexist* in the same object. So when the same act is directed *simultaneously* to two or more objects, the verb may have two or more objects after it; but the sentence need not, on that account, be split up into two or more sentences. A similar principle applies to the case of adverbial adjuncts. But every verb makes a distinct predication, consequently every verb requires a separate sentence for itself. The conjunction *or* always involves a complete sentence for each of the words or phrases that it introduces, because the word implies some *alternative*, so that the idea of simultaneousness is excluded.

- 448 It follows, from the principle on which co-ordinate and contracted sentences are constructed, that the co-ordinative conjunctions must always join words and clauses which *stand in the same relation* to the other parts of the sentence. It would make nonsense if we attempted to join an adjective to a noun (unless the latter be used *attributively* or *predicatively*), or a subject to an adverb, or a verb in the indicative mood to a verb in the imperative mood.*

Collateral Sentences.

- 449 We frequently find sentences side by side, which have a connexion with each other as regards their sense and use, but have no *grammatical* link of connexion between them (that is, no conjunction, relative pronoun, or relative adverb). The complex idea that such sentences suggest to the mind is the same as if they were co-ordinate clauses coupled by conjunctions. For example—"I came. I saw. I conquered." "Fear God. Honour the king."

"The way was long, the wind was cold;

The minstrel was infirm and old."

"So he spoke, so I replied." "This is foolish, that is wise."

"I was robbed of all my money; for that reason I was unable to proceed." "I believed, therefore have I spoken."

"He is virtuous; consequently he is happy."

Such sentences as those placed side by side in the above examples may be called *collateral* sentences.

- 450 A proper consideration of the nature of collateral sentences will enable us materially to thin the usual list of conjunctions. A word is not a conjunction because it *refers* us to something that precedes. Simple demonstratives do this. (See § 291, f.) Such words as *therefore*, *consequently*, *likewise*, *also* (*i.e.*, all so = *just in that manner*),

* Young letter-writers constantly forget this rule at the close of their epistles, where such combinations as, "I have no more to say, and believe me yours truly," are very frequent.

nevertheless, notwithstanding, are not conjunctions, but demonstrative adverbs.

- 451 We frequently have a series of sentences which are partly collateral and partly co-ordinate.

Example:—

“He stay’d not for brake, and he stopp’d not for stone;
He swam the Esk river, where ford there was none.”

- 452 Collateral sentences may be *contracted* in the same way as co-ordinate sentences; as, “A true friend advises justly, [a true friend] assists readily, [a true friend] adventures boldly, and [a true friend] continues a friend unchangeably.”

Elliptical Sentences.

- 453 Elliptical sentences differ from contracted sentences in the following respect:—In contracted sentences a certain portion which is common to the sentences is expressed only once in one of them, and has to be repeated in the others. In elliptical sentences, the part to be supplied in one clause, although suggested by what is expressed in the other, is not necessarily exactly the same in form. Moreover, contracted sentences or clauses are always co-ordinate; an elliptical clause is usually a subordinate clause, the portion to be supplied being suggested by the principal clause; as, “He is taller than I,” *i.e.*, “than I am tall”; “This does not cost so much as that,” *i.e.*, “as that costs much.”

GENERAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

- 454 The following is a brief summary of the laws of the structure of sentences, and of the functions of the different parts of speech.
- 455 The primary elements of every sentence are the substantive, which forms the subject of the sentence (see § 345), and the verb, by means of which an assertion is made about that for which the subject stands (see §§ 347, 348, 353, 359).
- 456 The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case (§§ 380, 381).
- 457 The nominative case is also used for the subjective complement of a verb of incomplete predication, which is intransitive or passive, such as *be, become, seem, be called, be made, &c.* (§ 393).
A noun or pronoun in the nominative may also be used absolutely (§ 372, 5).
- 458 For an account of the function and use of the possessive case, see §§ 67, 68, 69, 78, 178 note.
- 459 The objective case is used when a noun or pronoun is the direct object of a transitive verb, participle, or gerund (§ 366). It is also used for the objective complement of various transitive verbs of incomplete predication (§§ 391, 395). It is used to mark the indirect object of a verb, that is, to indicate the person or thing affected by, or concerned in, the result of the action, without being the direct

object of it (§ 372, 4), and is employed in various kinds of adverbial adjuncts (§ 372, 3). It may be used absolutely (§ 372, 5). Nouns or pronouns governed by prepositions are in the objective case (§§ 79, 372). It is sometimes employed (especially in colloquial language, and in connexion with the word *self*) when the strict laws of grammar would require the nominative, as, 'That's *him*'; 'Who is there? Me, sir' (§ 177). In this way it is often used after *than*, even by good writers.* The relative pronoun is always put in the objective after *than*.†

The objective case is used in exclamations, as, 'Ah me!'; 'Oh me, unhappy!'

- 460 A noun or pronoun may have another noun attached to it attributively, giving a further description or definition of the person or thing spoken of. This second noun is said to be in *apposition* to the former (§ 362). It is, of course, in the same case. But the sign of possession is not appended to the first of two nouns in apposition (§ 75).

- 461 Sometimes the idea expressed by an entire sentence is repeated (pleonastically) by means of a noun, for the purpose of appending some complex attributive phrase, as, "He rashly ventured to ascend the mountain without a guide, *an act* which cost him his life."

- 462 The general rule respecting the concord of verbs is, that a verb agrees with its subject in number and person (§ 376).

- 463 Words that are plural in form (as *mathematics, politics*) are sometimes treated as singular in construction (§ 58), and some singular nouns have been mistaken for plurals (§ 60). A plural used as the title of a book, &c., must be treated as a singular, as, "Johnson's '*Lives of the Poets*' is a work of great interest." For the usage when the subject is a collective noun, see § 380, and for the case of a compound subject, § 381.‡

- 464 When subjects differing in number, or person, or both are connected by *and*, the verb must always be in the plural; and in the first person if one of the subjects is of that person; in the second person if one of the subjects is of that person, and none of the first, as, 'I and he are of the same age'; 'You and I shall be too late.'

- 465 Subjects connected by *or* and *nor* imply an alternative. Hence a plural verb cannot be attached to two such subjects, if they are in the singular. The sentence is in fact contracted (§ 386), as, "Either John [is mistaken] or Thomas is mistaken"; "Neither John [is mistaken] nor Thomas is mistaken." §

* E.g., "A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both" (*Prov. xxvii. 3*).

† "Beelzebub . . . than whom, Satan except, none higher sat" (*Par. L., ii.*). There is no grammatical justification for this. The case of an interrogative or relative pronoun ought to be the same as that of the demonstrative pronoun which would answer to it. But "None sat higher than *him*" would be bad grammar.

‡ Sometimes nouns joined by *and* are regarded not as a compound subject, but as the independent subjects of a contracted sentence (§ 445). Thus: "To rive what Goth and Turk and Time hath spared" (*Ch. Harold*), implies a contraction of 'what Goth [hath spared], and [what] Turk [hath spared], and [what] Time hath spared.'

§ This sort of contraction is not legitimate unless the subjects are in the same number and person, for it is only then that the same verb is common to the two sentences (§ 445). But many grammarians tolerate contraction in other cases, and lay down the rule that if the alternative subjects differ in number, or person, or both, the verb should agree with the subject that is nearest to it. According to

- 466 The use of the subjunctive mood is perfectly simple and intelligible if its proper and primary function be kept in view (§ 195). That function is, to indicate that the connexion between the subject and the predicate is not regarded as corresponding to any *actual, external* event or state of affairs, past, present, or future, independent of the thought of the speaker, but is dealt with simply as a *conception of the mind*, without being spoken of any *actual* objective reality.* Using the term *objective* for what has an existence of its own, independent of the thought of the speaker, and *subjective* for what exists (or is dealt with as existing) only in the thought of the speaker, we may say that the *indicative* is the mood of *objective predication* and the subjunctive the mood of *subjective predication*. The principal forms that such conceptions assume are indicated in § 195. The use of the subjunctive in hypothetical sentences is explained in §§ 435–440.
- 467 The subjunctive mood was employed more commonly by the older writers than is the case now. It was used, for example, in dependent questions (as “I adjure Thee that Thou tell us whether Thou be the Christ”); and in various forms of hypothesis relating to what is, was, or will be the fact (‘If it be,’ ‘If it were,’ &c.), where the speaker confines himself to treating the fact supposed as a mere conception of the mind, although it might have been dealt with *objectively* by means of the indicative mood.†
- 468 *Sequence of Tenses*.—The tense of the verb in an accessory or dependent clause commonly depends upon that of the verb in the principal clause. A present or future in the principal clause requires a present or future indicative, or a present subjunctive, in the dependent clause. A past tense in the main clause requires a past tense in the dependent clause; e.g., “He does this that he may please me”; “He will do this that he may please me”; “He has done this that he may please me”; ‡ “He did this that he might please me”; “He

this we ought to say, “Neither we nor John is rich”; “Either the pupils or their teacher is wrong”; “Neither the children nor I am hungry.” To me all such sentences sound simply barbarous. It would be better to say, “Either the pupils are wrong, or their teacher is”; “Neither are we rich, nor is John,” &c. Inasmuch, however, as it comes to much the same thing whether we say that something can be asserted of *neither*, or *denied* of both, good writers sometimes allow themselves the use of contraction with *neither*—*nor*, but treat the verb according to the rule of concord for subjects of different number or person connected by *and*, as, “Neither you nor I are in fault.” (Compare “Hæc si neque ego neque tu fecimus.” *Ter.*, *And.* i., 2, 23.)

* It is altogether wrong to talk of the subjunctive mood as being *governed* by conjunctions. *If* or *unless* cannot possibly *govern* the subjunctive (i.e., necessitate its being used), for they are followed quite as often by the indicative as by the subjunctive. Which mood is to be employed depends entirely upon the principle stated above. If the subjunctive is uniformly employed after any particular conjunction (such as *lest*), it is because that conjunction, from its meaning, is incapable of introducing any sentence except one which denotes a mere conception of the mind.

† The modern use of the indicative is in many cases quite improper, as in “Take care that the child does not hurt himself.” A purpose, as such, exists only in the mind itself. So also in putting a *general* case, such as “He that smiteth a man so that he die” (*Ec.* xxi. 12), the subjunctive is proper, because the indicative, by turning the result supposed into a *fact*, would deprive it of its *generality*, and render it no longer suitable for the *general definition* that is wanted. In such sentences as “Come what may”; “Be he who he may”; “Come life, come death,” &c., we have (not the imperative, but) the subjunctive.

‡ Notice that *has done* is a *present* tense. (See § 207.)

says that he is better"; "He said that he was better," &c. But if the dependent clause states a *universal truth*, it is better to keep the present tense. Thus: "He allowed that all men *are* liable to error"; "He denied that God *exists*."

- 469 The Infinitive Mood may be used 1, as the simple subject or object of a finite verb (§§ 189, 191, 192, 385, 397). It sometimes has *to* before it in these cases, sometimes not. 2. Attached to a substantive, so that substantive and verb form a complex object of another verb (§ 397). 3. As an adverbial adjunct to another verb, or to an adjective. It is only the gerundial infinitive (§ 192) that can be thus used. The *to* retains its proper force (§§ 192, 372, 2). 4. As the complement of a verb of incomplete predication (§ 396).
- 470 The origin and construction of the gerund in *-ing* are explained in §§ 200, 201. When a verbal substantive in *-ing* is preceded by *the* or followed by *of*, it must be regarded as the representative of a verbal noun in *-ung*, as in "land suitable for the planting of trees"; "During the reading of the will," &c. When preceded by *the*, it should be followed by *of*. When the verbal noun in *-ing* has an object, like a verb, it is the gerund.*
- 471 Respecting the attributive and the predicative use of adjectives, see §§ 360, 391. As regards adjectives used substantively, and adjectives which have become substantives, see §§ 99-101. Adjectives and participles sometimes relate to the substantive which is *implied* in a possessive pronoun, as in "For *all our* sakes"; "It fills *my* mind waking and sleeping."
- 472 As a general rule the Article should be repeated before each of a series of nouns representing different things (as "I saw a horse, a cow, and a pig in the stable"; "An Act of Parliament requires the assent of the Queen, the Lords, and the Commons"), but not before each of several nouns describing the same thing† (as "He was the founder and patron of the institution"; "He slew the tyrant and destroyer of his country"), or before each of several adjectives attached to one noun (as "I dislike the long, rambling, and obscure sentences of that author"; "He delivered a short, pithy, and pun-

* The use of a participle where we ought to have a gerund, is a common error, as in, "I heard of *him running* away," instead of "I heard of his running away"; "It is of no use you saying so," for "It is of no use your saying so" (i.e., "It—namely, your saying so—is of no use"). At any rate the modern idiom tends towards the use of the gerund and the possessive, instead of the attributive participle. Still there are some expressions in which the latter is always used, as "You will oblige me by *all leaving* the room"; "I have my doubts as to this being true"; "You seem to understand me by *each* at once her choppy finger *laying* upon her skinny lips" (*Macbeth*); and the best writers sanction the participial construction, as, "I then all smarting with *my wounds being* cold" (*Shaksp.*); "Upon *Nigel insisting*," &c. (*Scott*); "These circumstances may lead to your Ladyship quitting this house" (*Thackeray*); "He wolde resten after *the sunne goyng* down" (*Wicl., Gen. xxviii. 11*). It may be questioned whether this participial construction has not fallen into undeserved disrepute. Phrases like *post urbem conditam* (= after the foundation of the city) are quite common in Latin. On the whole, there is scarcely sufficient reason to reject such constructions as, "I have no doubt about the prisoner being guilty"; "There was a story of money having been buried there," &c.

† In "He was a better prose-writer than poet," the omission of a before poet results from the form of the sentence which is contracted: "He was a better prose-writer than [he was a good] poet."

- gent address"). But certain infractions of the strict rule are allowable, when no ambiguity can possibly result. If the things spoken of are very closely connected together, one article often does double duty, as "We saw the King and Queen"; "The tables and chairs were in confusion"; "He gathered all the apples and pears"; "He built a coachhouse and stable." On the other hand the article may be repeated when it is impossible that more than one person or thing can be meant, as "He rose a sadder and a wiser man"; "You will find this road the shortest and the pleasantest."
- 473 When a noun is used attributively or predicatively with distinct reference to its *signification*, the article should not be used. Thus: "He became Chancellor of the Exchequer"; "John Smith, captain of the Petrel, next gave evidence."
- 474 Pronouns should agree in gender, number, and person with the nouns for which they stand. Their case is determined by the construction of the clause in which they occur. Thus: 'I do not like John (*obj.*); he (*nom.*) is an idle boy'; 'I know the man (*obj.*) whose (*poss.*) portrait hangs there,' &c. Even if the pronouns happen to *coincide* in case with the nouns to which they relate, this is not *grammatical agreement*, it is a mere accident.
- 475 The antecedent of a relative pronoun is sometimes disguised in the form of a possessive (adjective) pronoun, as "Whose is the crime, the scandal to be *theirs*." Respecting the omission of the antecedent or the relative, see §§ 160, 166, 409. The *continuative* relative (§ 413) can never be omitted.
- 476 When a relative refers to a noun which is in the attributive or predicative relation to a personal pronoun, the relative is sometimes made to agree in person with the pronoun, rather than with its actual antecedent. Thus: "I am . . . a plain blunt man, that *love my friend*" (*Sh. J. C.* iii. 2); "Thou art the God that *doest wonders*" (*Ps.* lxxvii. 14). Still more commonly do we say, "It is *I* who *am* in fault," although the exact construction of the sentence is, 'It (the person) who *is* in fault, is I.' †
- 477 Respecting *it* used as the subject of impersonal verbs, see § 344. For *it* as a preparatory or anticipatory subject, see § 387. For *it* used as a vague cognate objective, see § 372, note. The sense of *it* is so vague, that it may relate to a plural, as "It is we who have won."
- 478 If two alternative nouns, differing in gender or number, are referred to by the pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, we sometimes find the plural employed;‡ as, "If an ox gore a man or a woman, so that *they*

* In the older forms of the language the verb attached to the *it* was influenced by the following noun or pronoun. Thus in Chaucer we have, "It am I." "It bes nat ge that spoken" (*Mait.* x. 20). In German we have *es sind*, if a plural follow.

† To such a question as, "Who is there?" we might get such a reply as, "It is I, your uncle, who *am* come to see you." To such a question as, "Who is come to see me?" we should expect such an answer as, "It is I, your uncle, who *is* come to see you." On this point I differ from Dr. Adams (*Eng. Lang.*, p. 208).

‡ Compare the ambiguous *each* in, "Let *each* esteem other better than *themselves*." Some repeat the alternative in the pronoun, "So that he or she die"; "build his or her pretensions," &c. Cobbett insisted upon this being the only correct method. His dictum was ridiculed in the 'Rejected Addresses' by the parody, "I take it for granted that every intelligent man, woman, and child, to whom I address myself, has stood severally and respectively in Little Russell Street, and cast their, his, her, and its eyes on the outside of this building" (*Rushion, Rules*, &c., p. 110). Double alternatives involve a rather violent application of the prin-

die" (*Ex.* xxi. 28); "Not on outward charms alone should man or woman build *their* pretensions to please" (*Opie*).

- 479 *They who*, or *they that* is just as legitimate as *he who*, or *he that*. The plural *they* is freely used in this way by the older writers, but now-a-days *those* is usually substituted for it.

- 480 It must be borne in mind that in constructing a sentence out of its elements, an adjunct which, for *grammatical* purposes, is attached *directly* to some word, may, with regard to the *logical* sequence of ideas, be connected with that word only after some other adjunct has been joined to it. The predicate usually applies only to the *logical* subject (§ 348). In 'The boy was nearly killed,' '*was killed*' can be attached to '*boy*' only after '*nearly*' has been joined to the verb. In 'The first king of Rome' '*first*,' and '*of Rome*' are not *co-ordinate* adjuncts. One is applicable only after the other has been attached.*

PUNCTUATION.

- 481 In speaking, the words of a sentence, especially if it be a complex one, are not uttered consecutively without any break. Certain pauses are made to mark more clearly the way in which the words of the sentence are grouped together.

In writing, these pauses are represented by marks called *stops* or *points*. *Punctuation* (derived from the Latin *punctum*, a *point*) means "the right mode of putting in points or stops."

The stops made use of are—1. The Comma (,). 2. The Semicolon (;). 3. The Colon (:). 4. The Full Stop or Period (.)†.

As it is impossible to lay down perfectly exact rules for the introduction of pauses in speaking, so it will be found that in many cases the best writers are not agreed as to the use of stops in writing. All that can be done is to lay down the most general principles.

ciple of contraction, and approach dangerously near to the advertisement in the comedy: "Bats and gentlemen ketched and waited on." It is better to express the sentence in full (as, "If an ox gore a man so that he die, or gore a woman so that she die"), or change the form (as, "Not on outward charms alone should man build his pretensions to please, or woman hers"). But after all there is no great objection to the plural.

* A good deal of hypercriticism has been wasted on such phrases as "The three first verses of the chapter," &c. We are told that this is incorrect, because there is only one first verse. On this principle it is equally wrong to talk of "The first hours of infancy, or 'The last days of Pompeii,' for there is only one first hour, and one last day. Surely if there are several last days, their number may be specified. It would be the height of pedantry to alter "His two eldest sons went to sea" into "His eldest two sons went to sea"; yet strictly there can be only one eldest son. German writers see nothing wrong in such phrases as, "die drei ersten," "die zwei letzten," &c. All these superlatives admit of a little laxity in their application, just as *chief* and *extreme* admit of the superlatives *chiefest* and *extremest*. 'The three first verses' simply means 'The three verses before which there is no other.' Those who tell us to write 'The first three verses,' and so on, must do so on the hypothesis that the whole number of verses is divided into *sets of three*, of which *sets* the first is taken. But what, if the chapter only contains five altogether?

† These words (properly speaking) are names not of the *stops*, but of the portions of sentences which they mark off. *Comma* means a *clause*; *Colon*, a *limb* or *member* of a sentence; *Semicolon*, a half *Colon*; *Period*, a complete sentence.

482 The Full Stop is used at the end of a complete and independent sentence, but not at the end of a sentence which is followed by another *collateral* sentence (§ 449).

483 In simple sentences the comma is inserted—

1. Before the main verb, when the subject is accompanied by an attributive adjunct, which, with its adjuncts, forms a combination of words of considerable length. As, "The injustice of the sentence pronounced upon this wise and virtuous man, is evident." But if the adjunct is expressed briefly, the comma is not used; as, "The injustice of the sentence is evident."

2. Before and after any participle (not used as a mere qualitative adjective) or participial phrase; as, "The man, having slipped, fell over the cliff." "The general, having rallied his soldiers, led them forwards." "Undaunted, he still struggled on." "All night the dreadless angel, unpursued, through heaven's wide champaign winged his glorious way."

3. Before and after any attributive adjunct to the subject which consists of an adjective, or noun in apposition, when these are accompanied by other words standing to them in the attributive, objective, or adverbial relation. *E.g.*, "Bacon, the illustrious author of the 'Novum Organum,' declared," &c. "The soldier, afraid of the consequences of his insubordination, deserted."

4. Before or after a phrase or quotation which is either the subject or the object of a verb. Thus: "Nelson's watchword was, England expects every man to do his duty." "He said to his disciples, Watch and pray."

5. When the subject of a sentence consists of several substantives enumerated successively without having the conjunction *and* placed between them, they must be separated by commas. Thus: "John, William, James, and Henry took a walk together."

6. A comma is inserted after an adverbial phrase consisting of a noun (with its adjunct) used absolutely, or an infinitive mood (preceded by *to*) implying purpose, when it precedes the verb or its subject. As, "To conclude, I will only say," &c. "The man being dead, his heirs took possession of his estate."

7. Other complex adverbial phrases also are frequently followed by commas, when they precede the subject of the sentence; as, "By studying diligently for five hours a day, he mastered the language in six months." Such phrases

should be both preceded and followed by commas when they come between the subject and the verb.

8. Nouns used in the vocative (or nominative of appellation) are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence; as, "John, shut the door." "I said, Sir, that I had not done that."

484 In compound sentences:—

1. A substantive clause used as the subject of a verb should be followed by a comma. Thus: "That the accused is innocent of the crime imputed to him, admits of demonstration." "How we are ever to get there, is the question."

If such a clause *follows* the verb (the latter being preceded by it), a comma does not usually precede the substantive clause. As, "It is of great importance that this should be rightly understood."

A substantive clause which is the object of a verb is not generally preceded by a comma, unless it is of considerable length. When it is short, it follows the main verb without any break. Thus: "He acknowledged that he had done this." "Tell me how you are." But: "In answer to these inquiries the messenger replied, that he had not been present when the engagement took place."

2. An adjective clause is not separated by a comma from the noun which it qualifies when it is an essential part of the designation of the thing signified; that is, when the thing or person signified is not sufficiently indicated by the antecedent noun. Thus: "The man who told me this stands here." "I do not see the objects that you are pointing out."

But if the designation of the person or thing meant is complete without the relative sentence, so that the latter only extends and defines that designation, then a comma must be introduced. Thus: "We are studying the reign of William Rufus, who succeeded his father A.D. 1087." "I will report this to my father, who is waiting to hear the news."

In accordance with the principle laid down in § 479, 1, an adjective sentence usually has a comma placed after it, when it is attached to the subject of the sentence, and always has a comma after it when it is followed by any adverbial adjuncts of the principal verb; otherwise it would not be clear whether such adjuncts belonged to the main sentence or to the adjective clause. Thus: "He resisted the man who attacked him, with all his might"

3. Adverbial sentences are generally separated from the main sentence by commas, unless they are very short, and closely connected with what precedes. Thus: "When you have finished your work, tell me." "I will not reward you, unless you deserve it." But: "He ran away as soon as I saw him." "I could not catch him before he escaped."

- 485 Co-ordinate sentences are generally separated by commas when they are expressed at full length. Thus: "Next day they resumed their labours, and success soon crowned their efforts." "We were very tired, but we could not stop long." "Either he will succeed, or he will perish in the attempt."

Commas are also inserted between contracted co-ordinate sentences (§ 445), except when the portions that are expressed are very closely related to each other, and are connected by the conjunctions *and*, *or*, and *nor*. Thus: "We remained there that night, and set out early on the following day." "He searched diligently, but could not find it." But commas are not needed for such sentences as, "The infantry halted and formed a hollow square." "He struck and killed his brother." "Whether he win or lose does not concern us."

- 486 Collateral sentences (§ 449) are separated by commas when they are short, and by semicolons when they are of considerable length.

When collateral sentences are contracted, commas should be placed between those portions that remain. When a series of contracted sentences are partly collateral and partly co-ordinate, commas are inserted between the remains of the collateral sentences, but not between those of the co-ordinate clauses, provided these are closely connected together by means of the conjunctions *and* and *or* (see § 481). Thus: "He saw, wooed and won the daughter of the prince." "Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise." "He gazed upon the earth, the sea, the sky." "He took leave of his father, his brother and his sister." "He paid his bill, mounted his horse and rode away." "He does not study either Greek or Latin."

- 487 The above are the chief rules for the insertion of the comma. But a stop may be placed in writing whenever a pause would be made in speaking, for the purpose of rendering the sense more clear. And, *vice versâ*, stops

may be omitted in writing where, in reading or speaking, the portions of a sentence, between which some rule would seem to require a stop, are pronounced together without any break.

- 488 A semicolon is used instead of a comma, when the sense of the passage requires that a longer pause should be made in uttering it than is usually indicated by a comma. No other more exact rules can be given for the use of this stop.
- 489 The colon represents a longer pause than the semicolon. It may be placed between collateral sentences, when the connexion between them is not very close. It is also frequently placed before a quotation.
- 490 Besides the stops, some other signs are employed in writing.

A note of interrogation (?) must be placed at the end of all direct questions, but not after indirect questions. Thus: "Have you written your letter?" But: "He asked me whether I had written my letter."

The note of admiration or exclamation (!) is placed after interjections, exclamations, and after nouns and pronouns used in addresses, when particular stress is to be laid upon them. This mark is also frequently placed at the end of a sentence which contains an invocation.

- 491 The parenthesis () is used to enclose a clause, or part of a clause, which does not enter into the construction of the main sentence, but is merely introduced *by the way*. Words enclosed within a parenthesis do not require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by any other stop.
- 492 Double or single inverted commas '—', or "—", are used to mark quotations.
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ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

- 493 a. The first stage in the analysis of a simple sentence is to separate the grammatical subject with its adjuncts from the predicate-verb with whatever is attached to it as object, complement, or adverbial adjunct. The grammatical subject with its attributive adjuncts forms the *logical* subject of the sentence; the predicate verb, with all that is attached to it, forms the *logical* predicate of the sentence (§ 348).

Examples.

<i>Logical Subject.</i> (Grammatical Subject with Attributive Adjuncts.)	<i>Logical Predicate.</i> (Predicate-Verb, with Objective and Adverbial Adjuncts.)
Our messenger	has not yet arrived.
We	will carry all our property with us.
The village preacher's modest mansion	rose there.
The wretched prisoner, overwhelmed by his misfortunes,	was on the point of putting an end to his existence.
A bird in the hand	is worth two in the bush.

- 493 b. The following example illustrates the separation of the logical subject into the grammatical subject and its attributive adjuncts (§ 348).

"The soldiers of the tenth legion, wearied by their long march, and exhausted from want of food, were unable to resist the onset of the enemy."

<i>Logical Subject.</i>		<i>Logical Predicate.</i>
<i>Grammatical Subject.</i>	<i>Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.</i>	
Soldiers	1. The 2. of the tenth legion 3. wearied by their long march 4. exhausted from want of food	were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.

493 c. In the following examples the logical predicate is separated into its component parts:—

<i>Logical Subject.</i>	<i>Logical Predicate.</i>		
	<i>Predicate-Verb.</i>	<i>Object, with Adjuncts.</i>	<i>Adverbial Adjuncts.</i>
The sight of distress	fills	a benevolent mind	1. always 2. with compassion.
We	will bend	our course	1. thither 2. from off the tossing of these fiery waves.

493 d. In the following example both the subject and the object of the verb are separated into the substantive and attributive adjuncts of which they are composed:—

“The mournful tidings of the death of his son filled the proud heart of the old man with the keenest anguish.”

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Attributive Adjuncts of Object.</i>	<i>Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.</i>
tidings	1. The 2. mournful 3. of the death of his son	filled	heart	1. the 2. proud 3. of the old man	with the keenest anguish.

493 e. The following examples show how a complex predicate (§ 391-395) may be separated into its components:—

“That hero was deservedly called the saviour of his country.”

<i>Subject, with Adjuncts.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>		<i>Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.</i>	
	<i>Verb of Incomplete Predication.</i>	<i>Subjective Complement.</i>	<i>Adverbial Adjunct of Verb.</i>	<i>Adverbial Adjunct of Complement.</i>
that hero	was called	the saviour of his country	deservedly	

"This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life."

<i>Subject with Adjuncts.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>		<i>Object with Adjuncts.</i>	<i>Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.</i>	
	<i>Verb of Incomplete Predication.</i>	<i>Objective Complement.</i>		<i>Adjunct of Verb.</i>	<i>Adjunct of Complement.</i>
This misfortune	will make	miserable	the poor man	certainly	for life

493 *f.* The thorough analysis of a sentence is to be conducted in the following manner:—

i. Set down the subject of the sentence, which may consist (1) of a single substantive, or (2) of two or more substantives united by co-ordinative conjunctions, or (3) of an infinitive mood, or (4) of a quotation, or (5) of a subordinate substantive clause (see §§ 384-387).

ii. Set down the attributive adjuncts of the subject. These may consist (1) of an adjective or participle (with or without adjuncts of their own), or (2) of a noun, an infinitive mood, or a substantive clause in apposition to the subject, or (3) of a substantive (noun or pronoun) in the possessive case, or (4) of a substantive preceded by a preposition (including under this head an infinitive mood preceded by *to*), or (5) of an adjective clause (§ 362).

iii. Set down the predicate-verb. If the verb is one of incomplete predication, set down the complement of the predicate, and indicate that the verb and its complement make up the entire predicate (§§ 389-395).

iv. If the predicate be a transitive verb, set down the object of the verb. The object of a verb admits of the same varieties as the subject. If the predicate be a verb of incomplete predication, followed by an infinitive mood, set down the object of the dependent infinitive (§ 397).

v. Set down those words, phrases, or adjective clauses, which are in the attributive relation to the object of the predicate, or to the object of the complement of the predicate, if the latter be a verb in the infinitive mood (§ 389).

vi. Set down those words, phrases, or adverbial clauses which are in the adverbial relation to the predicate, or the complement of the predicate. These adverbial adjuncts may consist (1) of an adverb; or (2) of a substantive (or

verb in the infinitive mood) preceded by a preposition; or (3) of a noun qualified by an attributive word; or (4) of a substantive (noun or pronoun) in the objective case, before which *to* or *for* may be understood; or (5) of a nominative absolute; or (6) of an adverbial clause (§ 372).

These various elements of the sentence may be arranged either in the mode adopted in the following examples, or in that indicated in the table at the end of the book.

Examples of the Analysis of Simple Sentences.

- 494 a. "Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead with a single blow of his sword."

<i>Subject,</i>	'officer.'
<i>Attributive ad- juncts of subject,</i>	{ 1. 'the' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'enraged' (§ 362, 1). 3. 'having ridden up to the spot' (§ 362, 1).
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication,</i> 'struck.' <i>Complement of predicate</i> (§ 395) 'dead.'
<i>Object,</i>	'man.'
<i>Attributive ad- juncts of object,</i>	{ 1. 'the.' 2. 'unfortunate.'
<i>Adverbial ad- juncts of pre- dicate,</i>	{ 1. 'on the spot' (§ 372, 2). 2. 'with a single blow of his sword' (§ 372, 2).

- 494 b. "I saw a man with a sword." Here *with a sword* forms an *attributive adjunct* of the object *man*. It does not denote the manner or means of the action *saw* (§ 362, 4).

- 495 "Who are you?" *

<i>Subject,</i>	'you.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication,</i> 'are.' <i>Complement of predicate,</i> 'who.'

- 496 "Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the East."

<i>Subject,</i>	'star.'
<i>Attributive ad- juncts of subject,</i>	{ 1. 'the' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'bright' (§ 362, 1). 3. 'day's harbinger' (§ 362, 3).
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication,</i> 'comes.' <i>Complement of predicate,</i> 'dancing' + (§ 391).
<i>Adverbial adjunct of the predicate,</i>	'from the East' (§ 372, 2).

* The construction of an interrogative or relative sentence is most easily seen by looking at that of the corresponding affirmative or demonstrative sentence. Thus, "Who are you?" answers to "I am he."

† It is much better to class this example with such phrases as "looks fine," "grows tall," "smells sweet," &c., than to treat *dancing* as an attributive adjunct of the subject, which in the order of ideas it certainly is not.

- 497 "He found all his wants supplied by the care of his friends."

Subject, 'he.'
 Predicate, { Verb of incomplete predication, 'found.'
 { Complement of predicate, 'supplied' (§ 395).
 Object, 'wants.'
 Attributive adjuncts of object, { 1. 'all' (§ 362, 1).
 { 2. 'his' (§ 362, 3).

Adverbial adjunct of the complement of the predicate, 'by the care of his friends' (§ 372, 2).

(In the phrase "by the care of his friends," we may also separate the words "of his friends," as forming an attributive adjunct of the noun care.)

- 498 "A man of weak health is incapable of the thorough enjoyment of life."

Subject, 'man.'
 Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. 'a' (§ 362, 1).
 { 2. 'of weak health' (§ 362, 4).
 Predicate, { Verb of incomplete predication, 'is.'
 { Complement of predicate, 'incapable' (§ 393).

Adverbial adjunct of the complement of the predicate, 'of the thorough enjoyment of life.' (See the note on the last example.)

- 499 "And now, their mightiest quelled, the battle swerved, with many an inroad gored."

Subject, 'battle.'
 Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. Article, 'the.'
 { 2. Participial phrase, 'with many an inroad gored' (§ 362, 1).
 Predicate, 'swerved.'
 Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. Adverb, 'now.'
 { 2. Noun, with attributive adjunct, in the nominative absolute, 'their mightiest quelled' (§ 372, 5).

- 500 "He gave him a letter to read." Here 'him' (i.e., 'to him') and 'to read' (*ad legendum*, § 190) form adverbial adjuncts of the predicate.

- 501 It frequently happens that the attributive adjuncts of the subject or object have in their turn adverbial or other adjuncts of sufficient importance to be worth setting down separately. In that case they may be inserted in the analysis under a heading of their own. Thus :—

"Hence, loathed Melancholy,
 Of Cerberus and blackest midnight born,
 In Stygian cave forlorn,
 'Mongst horrid shapes, and shrieks and sights unholy."

- Subject*, 'melancholy.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. *Adjective*, 'loathed.'
 2. *Participle*, 'born.'
Adverbial adjuncts of 'born,' { 1. 'Of Cerberus and blackest midnight.'
 2. 'In Stygian cave forlorn.'
 3. 'Mongst horrid shapes, and shrieks, and sights unholy.'
Predicate (understood), 'go' (or depart).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'hence.'

502a "All but one were killed."

Here 'but one' (A. S. *būtan ānum*) is an adverbial adjunct (§ 372, 2) of the verb. The sentence means 'all, leaving out one, were killed.'

502b "None but the brave deserve the fair."

That is, 'None, if we leave out the brave, deserve the fair.' 'But the brave' (like 'but one' in the last example) is an adverbial adjunct of the predicate. (For another mode of explaining the construction of *but* in this instance, see § 289. note. It is easy to see that the filling up of the ellipsis there indicated is possible only after a negative.) "Who but a madman would act thus?" means, "Leaving out the class of madmen, who would act thus?" The phrase 'but a madman,' is, in any case, an adverbial adjunct of the predicate.

503 "But being charged, we will be still by land" (*Antony and Cleopatra*, iv. 11, 1).

Here 'but being charged' is a gerund, preceded by the preposition *but*, and means 'leaving out the case of being charged.' The phrase forms an adverbial adjunct to the predicate verb *will be*. The sentence means, "Unless we are attacked, we will make no movement by land."

504 "Whence, but from the author of all ill, could spring so deep a malice?"

Here an adverbial phrase instead of a substantive seems to follow the preposition *but*. The use of the gerund after *but* in the last example, however, suggests that the full phrase should be *but springing from the author of all ill*, that is, "Without springing from the author of all ill," or, "If we leave out the case of springing from the author of all ill, whence could so deep a malice spring?" So, "Matchless but with the Almighty," is "Matchless but (being matched) with the Almighty."

A similar explanation may be given of such phrases as, "He never comes but when he is not wanted," i.e., 'but (coming) when he is not wanted;' so 'except when he is not wanted,' may be treated as 'coming when he is not wanted being excepted.' We do, however, find adverbs standing for qualified substantives, and preceded by prepositions. *Before* now is equivalent to *before the present time*.

305 "I can but lament the result."

In such sentences it seems as though *but* were an adverb, meaning *only*. It is, however, the preposition *but*, followed by a verb in the infinitive (or substantive) mood. In reality all such constructions have

arisen from the improper omission of a negative.* In Chaucer we find, "I n'am but a leude compilatour;" "That I may Lave not but my meat and drinke" (Wedgwood, *Dict. s. v.* 'but').

Examples of the Analysis of Complex Sentences.

- 506 When there are subordinate clauses, the analysis of the entire sentence must first be conducted as if for each subordinate clause we had some single word. When the relation of the several clauses to the main sentence and to each other has thus been clearly marked, the subordinate clauses are to be analysed on the same principles as simple sentences. Mere conjunctions (§ 286) do not enter into the grammatical structure of the clauses which they introduce. No combination of words forms a dependent sentence without a finite verb expressed or understood.
- 507 The relation of the parts of a complex sentence may be indicated by the following notation:—1. Let brackets of different kinds enclose the several clauses, and be so placed as to enclose *everything* that enters into the structure of the clause in question. If a clause contains other subordinate clauses within it, let these be enclosed in brackets of their own. A *principal* sentence need not be enclosed in brackets, unless it be one of two or more co-ordinate sentences. 2. Let a *principal* sentence be marked by a capital letter placed before it,† as (A), (B), &c. 3. Let each subordinate clause be marked by a *small* letter of its own prefixed to it (inside the brackets), a letter without a dash (*a*, *b*, &c.) denoting a substantive clause, a letter with a dash (*a'*, *a''*, &c.) denoting an adjective clause, and a letter with two dashes (*m'*, *n'*, &c.) denoting an adverbial clause. (Co-ordinate clauses may be denoted by the *same* small letter repeated and distinguished by numerals placed underneath, as *a*₁, *a*₂, *b*₁', *b*₂', *b*₃'.) This *single* letter would be enough to *denote* the clause for subsequent reference; but, to show more clearly the connection of the clauses, if one subordinate clause is contained within another, let the letter which denotes the contained clause be *preceded* by the letter or letters denoting the containing clause. Thus, let (*a*'*b*) denote a substantive clause (*b*) which is contained within an adjective clause (*a'*); let (*ab'*'*c'*) denote an adverbial clause (*c'*) contained within the second (*b'*₂) of two or more co-ordinate adjective clauses contained within a substantive clause (*a*). Thus in the following example (C): "I have heard [(*a*) that my brother has lost at play the money {(*ab'*.) which was given to him {(*a*'*b'*'*c'*.) that he might pay his debts }"}], the substantive clause marked *a* includes all from 'that my brother' to

* There are other instances in which negatives are improperly omitted in English. "Do not spend more than you can help," ought to be "Do not spend more than you cannot help." "He has lost ever so much money," should be, "He has lost never so much money," i.e., "He has lost a quantity of money, and never before lost so much."

† This may be omitted if the sentence is an isolated one.

'debts.' The adjective clause beginning with 'which' is marked *ab'*, because it is an adjective clause (*b'*) contained within the substantive clause which is marked *a*; and the adverbial clause beginning with *that* is marked *ab'c''*, being an adverbial clause (*c''*) contained within the adjective clause marked *ab'*; all the clauses being parts of the principal sentence (C). The letters denoting the clauses may be enclosed within brackets of their own, or not, at discretion. If it is desired to indicate to which out of two or more co-ordinate sentences a clause belongs, carry out the notation by prefixing to the letter or letters placed before the clause the capital letter placed before the sentence.

1. Sentences containing Substantive Clauses.

- 508 (A) "He inferred from this [(*a*) that the opinion of the judge was {(*ab*) that the prisoner was guilty}].

Analysis of (A).

<i>Subject,</i>	'he.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	'inferred.'
<i>Object,</i>	{ <i>Substantive clause</i> , [(<i>a</i>) 'That† the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty'] (§ 403).
<i>Adverbial adjunct of predicate</i> , 'from this' (§ 372, 2).	

* The use of this notation is not at all essential in the analysis of sentences, but it will be found to add much to the clearness of the process. Instead of brackets enclosing the various clauses, lines of different sorts may be drawn under or over the clauses. A thick line may denote a substantive clause, a thin line an adjective clause, and a dotted line an adverbial clause, the small letters denoting the clauses being placed at the beginning of the several lines. Thus, "I have heard that my brother has lost at play the money which was given to him

- (*a*) that he might pay his debts. ^(*ab'*) The degree of subordination of the various

(*ab'c''*) clauses would thus be obvious at a glance. If the use of these combinations of letters for denoting the subordinate clauses be thought too difficult, each clause, as it is reached in the analysis, may be denoted by a letter or mark of any kind, for subsequent reference, without bracketing and marking the clauses in the first instance. Thus (A), "He inferred that the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty":—

<i>Subject,</i>	'he.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	'inferred.'
<i>Object,</i>	{ (<i>Substantive clause</i>), 'that the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty' (X).

Analysis of (X).

<i>Subject and adjuncts,</i>	'the opinion of the judge.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication</i> , 'was.'
	{ <i>Complement (Substantive clause)</i> , 'that the prisoner was guilty' (Y).

Analysis of (Y).

<i>Subject and adjunct,</i>	'the prisoner.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication</i> , 'was.'
	{ <i>Complement</i> , 'guilty.'

+ *That*, being a mere conjunction, does not enter into the structure of the clause which it introduces.

Analysis of (a).

Subject, 'opinion.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. 'the.'
 2. 'of the judge' (§ 362, 4).
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.'
Complement (Substantive clause) { (ab) 'that
 the prisoner was guilty' }.

Analysis of (ab').

Subject (with Attributive adjuncts), 'the prisoner.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.'
Complement, 'guilty.'

- 509 (A) "Tell me [(b) who * you think that man is]."

Analysis of (A).

Subject (understood), 'you.'
Predicate, 'tell.'
Object, { *(Substantive clause)* [(b) 'Who you think that
 man is'].
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'me.'

Analysis of (b).

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'think.'
Object, (Substantive clause) {(bc) 'Who that man is'}.

Analysis of (bc).

Subject, with adjunct, 'that man.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Complement of predicate, 'who.'

- 510 "The hope that I shall be successful sustains me."

The substantive clause 'that I shall be successful,' may be termed an *enlargement* of the subject *hope*, to which it stands in a species of *objective* relation, *hope* being a noun denoting an active feeling directed towards some object (§ 450).

- 511 (1) "That he said that is not true." (2) "It is not true that he said that."

In the former sentence the subject is the substantive clause "that he said that." In the latter the subject is the pronoun *it*, to which the substantive clause, "that he said that," stands in apposition, forming an attributive adjunct to it (§ 362, 2).

* It is common in sentences of this kind to see the interrogative or relative pronoun put in the objective case. This is wrong (see note on § 495). "Whom do men say that I am" would be correct only if it were allowable to say, "Men say that I am him." The words *you think* are printed in italics because, although they belong to the entire substantive clause, they interrupt the consecutiveness of the contained clause, 'who that man is.'

- 512 (1) "I told him that he was mistaken." (2) "I convinced him
that he was mistaken."

In the first sentence *him* answers to the Latin *dative* case, and is an adverbial adjunct to the predicate *told*, the *object* of which is the substantive clause "that he was mistaken." In the second sentence *him* is the direct object of the verb, and the substantive clause (like the Latin *Accusative of Limitation*) forms an adverbial adjunct of the predicate (§ 407). The first sentence is equivalent to "He was mistaken. I told him *that*," the second to "He *was* mistaken. I convinced him *with respect to that*."

- 513 "There was a report that you were dead."

Subject, 'report,'
 Attributive ad- { 1. 'a'
 juncts of subject, { 2. Substantive clause, 'that you were dead'
 (§ 362, 2).
 Predicate, 'was.'
 Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'there.'

- 514 (A) "Methinks" * [(a) the lady doth protest too much"].

Subject, '[that] the lady doth protest too much' (a).
Predicate, 'thinks.'⁶
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, '[to] me.'

Analysis of (a).

<i>Subject,</i>	'lady.'
<i>Attributive adjunct of subject,</i>	'the.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	'doth protest.'
<i>Object,</i>	'too much.'

- 515 (B) "Him thought * [(a) his sorrowful heart would break '].

Here the substantive clause "[that] his sorrowful heart would break" is the subject of the verb *thought*.

- 516 "I should have forgiven him, but that he repeated the offence."

Here we have a substantive clause preceded by the preposition *but*, the whole phrase forming an adverbial adjunct of the predicate "should have forgiven" (§ 403).

- 517 (A) "Thieves are not judged, but †. [(m) they are by to hear"].
(B) "It shall go hard but ‡ [(n) I will better the instruction]."

In these two sentences the substantive clauses that follow the preposition *but* are not introduced by the conjunction *that*. The combination of the preposition and substantive clause forms an adverbial adjunct to the predicate (§ 372, 2).

* *Thinks* and *thought* are the present and past indefinite tenses of the old English verb *thincan*, 'to appear.' (Compare the German *denk* and *denktest*).

† That is, "without their being by to hear," or "the case of their being by to hear being excluded."

‡ That is, "The case of my bettering the instruction being excluded, it shall go hard."

2. Sentences containing Adjective Clauses.

- 518 (A) "The cohort, {(a') which had already crossed the river, quickly came to blows with the enemy."

Subject, 'cohort.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. *Article,* 'the.'
2. *Adjective clause,* 'which had already crossed the river' (a').

Predicate, 'came.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'quickly.'
2. 'to blows.'
3. 'with the enemy.'

Analysis of (a').

Subject, 'which.'

Predicate, 'had crossed.'

Object, 'river.'

Attributive adjunct to object, 'the.'

Adverbial adjunct to predicate, 'already.'

- 519 (B) "Give me that large book {(a') that you have in your hand"}.

Here the adjective clause "that you have in your hand" is in the attributive relation to the object 'book.' The relative *that* is the object of *have*.

- 520 "Give me what you have in your hand."

Here the adjective clause, "what you have in your hand" is used substantively, that is, without having its antecedent *that* expressed. In the analysis we may either introduce the word *that*, the object of *give*, and set down the relative adjective clause as an attributive adjunct to it, or we may at once call the adjective clause itself the object of the verb.

Care must be taken not to confound adjective clauses like the above with substantive clauses beginning with the *interrogative what*, as "Tell me *what he said*." (§ 410.)

- 521 "I return to view where once the cottage stood."

Here 'where once the cottage stood' is an adjective clause qualifying the noun *place* understood, which forms the object of *view*.

- 522 "Who is there but admires such deeds?"

The verb *admires* requires a subject. If we supply *he*, the phrase *but [that] he admires such deeds* is an adverbial phrase qualifying the predicate, and consisting of the preposition *but*, followed by a substantive clause. If we supply *who* ('but who admires,' &c.), we also get an adverbial adjunct to the predicate, the sentence being equivalent to, "Who, if we leave out those who admire such deeds, is there?" *Who admires such deeds* is then an adjective clause used substantively, that is, without an antecedent expressed, and preceded by a preposition.

522 "His conduct is not such as I admire."

Here *as I admire* must be taken as an adjective clause co-ordinating with *such*, and (like it) forming a complement to the predicate *is*. *As* does duty for a relative pronoun, and is the object of *admire* (§ 412).

3. Sentences containing Adverbial Clauses.

- (D) [(*m'*) "When in Salamanca's cave
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
The bells would ring in Notre Dame."

Analysis of (D).

Subject (with attributive adjunct), 'the bells.'
Predicate, 'would ring.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. (Adverbial clause) [(*m'*) 'when in Salamanca's — wave'.
2. 'in Notre Dame.'

Analysis of (m').

Subject (Infinitive phrase), } 'to wave his magic wand.'
Predicate, 'listed.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'When.'
2. 'in Salamanca's cave.'
3. 'him.'*

525 (A) "He slept [(*n'*) while I watched]."

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'slept.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, } (Adverbial clause), 'while I watched.'

Analysis of (n').

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'watched.'
'While' is a conjunction (§ 291c).

526 "He slept till I awaked him."

Here it must be observed that *till* is not adverbial in its force. It is usually called a conjunction, and such a clause as 'till I awaked him' is regarded as an adverbial clause. *Till* was originally a preposition, and was used with a substantive clause after it (§ 291c).

527 (B) [(*x'*) "If it were done+ [(*x''y'*) when 'tis done]], then it were well [(*z*) it were done quickly"]].

* *Him* has here the force of a *dative*.
+ i.e. If it were all over when 'tis done.

Analysis of (B).

<i>Subject,</i>	'it.'
<i>Attributive ad-</i>	} <i>Substantive clause in apposition, (§387) [(z)</i>
<i>juncts of subject,</i>	
<i>Predicate,</i>	'were.'
<i>Adverbial ad-</i>	} 1. (<i>Adverbial clause of condition</i>) { <i>x</i> " 'If it
<i>juncts of predi-</i>	
<i>cate,</i>	
	2. 'then.'
	3. 'well.'

Analysis of (x").

<i>Subject,</i>	'it.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication, were.'</i>
	{ <i>Complement, 'done.'</i>
<i>Adverbial adjunct</i>	} (<i>Adverbial clause of time</i>) [(<i>x</i> " <i>y</i> ") 'when 'tis
<i>of predicate,</i>	
	{ <i>done.'</i>

Analysis of (x"y").

<i>Subject,</i>	'it.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication, 'is.'</i>
	{ <i>Complement, 'done.'</i>
<i>Adverbial adjunct</i>	} 'when.'
<i>of predicate,</i>	

Analysis of (z).

<i>Subject,</i>	'it.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	(<i>Ordinary passive verb</i>) 'were done.'
<i>Adverbial adjunct</i>	} 'quickly.'
<i>of complement,</i>	

628 (A) "He ran so fast {(*a*") that I could not overtake him"}.

<i>Subject,</i>	'he.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	'ran.'
<i>Adverbial ad-</i>	} 'fast,' <i>qualified by</i> —1. 'so.'
<i>juncts of predi-</i>	
<i>cate</i>	2. 'that I could not overtake him.'

Analysis of (a").

(*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with 'so.'* § 424.)

<i>Subject,</i>	'I.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication, 'could.'</i>
	{ <i>Complement, 'overtake.'</i>
<i>Object,</i>	'him.'
<i>Adverbial ad-</i>	} 'not.'
<i>junct of predi-</i>	
<i>cate,</i>	

[It seems natural, at first sight, to regard *that* in this sentence as the equivalent of the Latin connective adverb *ut* (note on § 291/). But the construction in reality sprang out of the use of a substantive clause

used in apposition to a demonstrative pronoun ('to *that* [degree]'), which was afterwards replaced by the adverb *so*. The *that*, therefore, had better still be regarded as the subordinative conjunction (§ 424), though the substantive clause has become adverbial.]

529 "He spoke loud that I might hear him."

Here the clause "that I might hear him" is now an adverbial adjunct of 'spoke.' It was originally a substantive clause in apposition to some such noun as *order* or *end* in such a sentence as "He spoke loud in order that I might hear him," or "to the end that I might hear him," where the whole phrase, "in order that I might hear him," forms an adverbial adjunct to the verb *spoke*.

530 (A) [(b'') "Whatever the consequence may be] I shall speak the
truth."

Analysis of (b'').

(Adverbial clause of concession attached to 'shall speak.')'

Subject (with attributive adjunct), 'the consequence.'

Predicate, { Verb of incomplete predication, 'may.'
 { Complement of predicate, 'be.'
 { Secondary complement (§ 393), 'whatever.'

531 (C) "He is not so wise [(a'') as he is witty]."

Subject, 'he.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication, 'is.'*
 { *Complement, 'wise.'*

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'

Adverbial adjuncts of complement. { 1. 'so.'
2. 'as he is witty' (α'').

Analysis of (a'').

(Adverbial clause qualifying 'wise,' and co-ordinate with 'so.')

Subject, 'he.

Predicate, { Verb of incomplete predication, 'is.'
 { Complement, 'witty.'

Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

532 (X) "Beware { (d'') how you meddle with these matters " }.

Subject (understood), 'you.'

Predicate, { Verb of incomplete predication, 'be.'
 { Complement of predicate, 'ware.'

Adverbial adjunct of complement. { *Complementive phrase,*
(*Substantive clause adverbially, § 407,*
'how you meddle with these matters'
(*d'*).

	<i>Analysis of (d').</i>
<i>Subject,</i>	'you.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	'meddle.'
<i>Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,</i>	{ 1. 'how.'
	2. 'with these matters.'

Examples of the Analysis of Compound Sentences.

533 Ordinary sentences of this kind require no special discussion. All that has to be done is to analyse each of the co-ordinate clauses separately, omitting the conjunctions by which they are connected.

534 There is, however, one class of co-ordinate clauses which require care, namely those in which the relative pronoun has a *continuative* force. (See § 413, and *Analysis of Sentences applied to Latin*, § 165).

535 [(A) "At last it chanced this proud Sarazin
To meete me wand'ring;] [(B) who perforce me led
With him away] [(C) but never yet could win]."

	<i>Analysis of (A).</i>
<i>Subject,</i>	'it.'
<i>Attributive adjunct of subject (infinitive phrase, in apposition to 'it,')</i>	{ 'to meete me wand'ring'
<i>Predicate,</i>	'chanced.'
<i>Adverbial adjunct of predicate,</i>	'this proud Sarazin.'

The analysis of (B) and (C) presents no difficulty. They are *principal* clauses co-ordinate with (A); *who* being *continuative* in its force (§ 413).

536 [(A) "This is now our doom], [(B) {(m') which if we can sustain and bear,} our supreme foe in time may much remit his anger"].

Here *which* is *continuative* in force (§ 413).

	<i>Analysis of (B).</i>
<i>Subject (with adjuncts),</i>	'our supreme foe.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication,</i> 'may.'
	<i>Complement,</i> 'remit.'
<i>Object (with adjunct),</i>	'his anger.'
<i>Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,</i>	{ 1. (<i>Adverbial clause</i>) [(m') 'which — and bear'].
	2. 'in time.'
	3. 'much.'

Analysis of (m").

<i>Subject,</i>	'we.'
<i>Predicate,</i>	{ <i>Verb of incomplete predication,</i> 'can.'
<i>Object,</i>	{ <i>Complement,</i> 'sustain and bear.'
	'which.'

Contracted Sentences.

- 537 Before a contracted sentence (§ 445) is analysed, the parts omitted must be expressed at full length.
- 538 "There has not been a better or more illustrious man than Africanus." In full—
 [(A) 'There has not been a better man than Africanus.']
 [(B) 'There has not been a more illustrious man than Africanus.']
- 539 "We perceive that these things not only did not happen, but could not have happened." In full—
 [(A) 'We perceive that these things not only did not happen.']
 [(B) 'We perceive that these things could not have happened.']
- 540 "Many instances were related of wise forethought, or firm action, or acute reply on his part, both in the senate and in the forum." In full—
 [(A) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the senate.']
 [(B) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the forum.']
 [(C) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the senate.']
 [(D) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the forum.']
 [(E) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the senate.']
 [(F) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the forum.']
- 541 "Every assertion is either true or false, either wholly or in part." In full—
 [(A) 'Every assertion is true wholly.']
 [(B) 'Every assertion is true in part.']
 [(C) 'Every assertion is false wholly.']
 [(D) 'Every assertion is false in part.']
- 542 When co-ordinate sentences or clauses are connected by *neither*, *nor*, the simple negative *not* may be substituted for each in the analysis, the *conjunctive* portion of the words being omitted.

"The man who neither reverences nobleness nor loves goodness, is hateful." In full—

[(A) 'The man who reverences not nobleness is hateful.']

[(B) 'The man who loves not goodness is hateful.']

- 543 "Whether he succeed or fail, it will not matter to me." In full—

[(A) 'If he succeed, it will not matter to me.']

[(B) 'If he fail, it will not matter to me.']

Elliptical Sentences.

- 544 An elliptical sentence is one in which something is omitted which is essential to the complete construction of the sentence, but which is readily supplied in thought, without being expressed in words.
- 545 Contracted sentences are one variety of elliptical sentences, in which what is common to two or more co-ordinate sentences is expressed only once. In the sentences now to be considered that which is omitted is not common to two or more clauses.
- 546 Relative pronouns and relative adverbs are sometimes omitted.
- "That is the book I gave you." In full—"That is the book *which* I gave you."
- "That is the house I live in." In full—"That is the house *which* I live in."
- "That is the way I came." In full—"That is the way *which* (or *by which*) I came." (Here the *which* or *by which* will be in the adverbial relation to the verb *came*.)
- "He left the day I arrived." In full—"He left the day *that* (or *on which*) I arrived." (In this sentence *the day* is in the adverbial relation to *left*; *that* (or *on which*) is in the adverbial relation to *arrived*; and the dependent clause *that I arrived* is an adjective clause qualifying *day*.)
- 547 The commonest (and the most troublesome) elliptical sentences are those which begin with *as* and *than*. In analysing them care must be taken to ascertain *what the predicate really is* in the dependent clause, and what word the adverbs *as* and *than* qualify. (See §§ 267, 420—422.)
- 548 "He is as tall as I am."* In full—"He is as tall as I am *tall*."

* Clauses beginning with *as* frequently come after the adverb *so* or the demonstrative *as*, with which they are co-ordinate (see § 422). When *as* answers to *so* or *as*, it qualifies a word (expressed or understood) expressing the same sort of idea as is expressed by the word which the *so* or *as* qualifies. This is best seen by the Latin usage. It is not uncommon to find such sentences as the following:—"Qui se oppido munitissimo tamdiu tenuit *quamdiu* in provincia Parthi fuerunt" (Cic. Fam. xii. 19)—"Who kept himself in a very strongly fortified town *so long as* the Parthians were in the province." We see from the Latin that the relative adverb *as* (answering to *quam*) really qualifies the word *long* understood ("as long as the

This sentence is analysed precisely in the same way as that in § 531. If we ask what the predicate in the dependent clause is (or what is predicated of *me*), the answer is, "*being tall*;" and moreover not *being tall* simply, but *being tall in a certain degree*, which degree is denoted by the relative adverb *as*, which qualifies *tall* (understood) in the adverbial clause, just as the demonstrative adverb *as* qualifies *tall* in the main clause.

- 549 "He is taller than I am." In full—(A) "He is taller [(*α*) than I am tall"].

Subject,	{ 'he.'
Predicate,	{ Verb of incomplete predication, 'is.'
	{ Complement of predicate, 'taller.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate,	{ (Adverbial clause) [(<i>α'</i>) 'than I am tall']. }

Analysis of (α').

Subject,	{ 'I.'
Predicate,	{ Verb of incomplete predication, 'am.'
	{ Complement of predicate, 'tall.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate,	{ 'than.'

It has been explained that the connective adverb *than* originally signified *when* (§ 284, note), and in this relative sense was employed to introduce the standard of comparison. The sentence in full is:—"He is taller when I am tall," i.e., 'when my tallness is taken into account.'

- 550 "He is more industrious than clever." In full—"He is more industrious than *he* is clever."

Here again the way in which the sentence gets its meaning is quite intelligible when the original and proper signification of *than* is understood. It means:—"He is more industrious when he is clever," i.e., 'when his cleverness is regarded, or taken as a standard,'—'when he has cleverness to serve as a measure of his industry.' The *when* refers not so much to *time* as to *the circumstances of the case*.

Parthians kept themselves *long*, &c.). So again: "Nemo orator *tam multa* ne in Græco quidem otio scripsit, *quam multa* sunt nostra" (Cic. *Orat.* 30).—"No orator has written *so many* things, as our writings are *many*." "Tam magis illa fremens, et tristibus effera flammis, quam magis effuso crudescunt sanguine pugnae" (Virg. *Æn.* vii. 788). In English we render *tam magis*—*quam magis* by *so much the more*—*as*; but the Latin shows that the *as* really qualifies the word *more* (understood). But it is the common practice in Latin (and the universal practice in English) to omit the word qualified by *quam* (English *as*), when it is already expressed in the main clause; as, "Vixit tamdiu quam licuit in civitate bene beateque vivere" (Cic. *de Off.* ii. 12). The same principle is illustrated by such correlatives as *tantus*—*quantus*, and *talis*—*qualis*. If *tantus* means *so great*, *quantus* (though rendered only by *as*) must really mean *as great*.

It may be taken as a general rule that after the relative adverbs *as* and *than* we must supply a word of the same kind of meaning as the word qualified by the simple or demonstrative adverb in the main clause. In Anglo-Saxon we often find the word qualified by the relative adverb expressed, as: *ic ne mæg swa fela gefon swa fela swa ic mæg geseylan*: "I cannot catch so many as I can sell [many]." —*Aelf. Coll.*

- 551 "He has not written so much as I have." In full—"He has not written *so much as* I have written *much*." (See § 421, and note on § 549.)

The adverb *as* does not refer to the *manner* of my writing (*i.e.*, it is not an adverb of *manner*, qualifying the verb *have written*), but refers to the *quantity* that I have written (*i.e.*, it is an adverb of *degree*, qualifying the word *much* understood).

- 552 "He has lived as many years as you have lived months." In full—"He has lived *as many years as* you have lived *many months*."

In the adverbial clause *as* is an adverb qualifying *many* (understood), and the whole adverbial clause is co-ordinate with the demonstrative *as* in the main clause.

- 553 "He has written more letters than you." In full—"He has written more letters than you have written many letters."

It is clear that in the subordinate clause the object of the verb *have written* is not expressed, and yet is requisite to make the sense complete. A transitive verb must have an object (expressed or understood) as well as a subject. And as a comparison is drawn between the *number* of letters written in each case, the object *letters* (understood) must be accompanied by an adjective indicating number. The whole is attached to the predicate in the main clause, denoting the *standard* of comparison kept in view when the assertion of the main clause is made.

- 554 "He does not write so well as you." In full—"He does not write *so well as* you write *well*." The adverbial idea which is attached to the predicate in the subordinate clause is not the *manner* (speaking generally) of 'your writing,' but the *degree of goodness* that marks 'your writing.' The idea of *goodness* will be expressed by *well*, and the notion of *degree* by the adverb *as*, which qualifies *well*.

- 555 "I would as soon die as suffer that." Here it is clear that the word *as* in the subordinate clause does not mark the *manner* of the suffering referred to, but the *degree of readiness* with which 'I would suffer that.' Therefore *as* must qualify an adverb (marking *readiness*), understood. At full length the sentence is, "I would as soon die as (I would soon) suffer that."

- 556 "I would rather die than suffer that."

The analysis of the preceding sentence will guide us to that of the one before us. At full length it will be, "I would rather die than (I would soon) suffer that." Here *than* (= *when*) qualifies the predicate *would suffer*, and the adverbial clause, '*than I would soon suffer that*,' qualifies the predicate in the main clause.

- 557 "I saw John as well as Thomas." In full—"I saw John as well as [I saw] Thomas [well]." Here the elliptical adverbial clause '*as Thomas*' qualifies and explains the *as* in the main clause, to which it is therefore in the adverbial relation.

- 558 "He is not so rich as you think." In full—(A) "He is not so rich [(a') as you think {(a'') that he is rich''}]."

Subject, 'he.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.'
Complement of predicate, 'rich.'

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'

Adverbial adjuncts of complement, { 1. 'so.'
 2. (*Adverbial clause*) [(a'') 'as you think that he is rich''].

Analysis of (a').

"As you think that he is rich."

The construction of this clause is the same as though it were "You think that he is so rich." The relative adverb *as* qualifies the adjective *rich*, which is the complement of the predicate in the dependent substantive clause "*that he is rich*."

- 559 "He is richer than you suppose." In full—(B) "He is richer [(x') than you suppose that he is rich'"]."

Subject, 'he.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.'
Complement of predicate, 'richer.'

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, { *Adverbial clause* [(x'') 'than you suppose that he is rich''].

Analysis of (x').

Subject, 'you.'

Predicate, 'suppose.'

Object (Substantive clause), { {(x'') 'that he is rich.'}

Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'than' (= *when*).

Analysis of (x'').

Subject, 'he.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.'
Complement of predicate, 'rich.'

The separation of *than* or *as* from the clause to which it really belongs may be illustrated by such sentences as, "I told him how foolish I thought he was." "He asked me how I thought he looked."

- 560 "I had rather die than endure such disgrace." In full—(C) "I had rather die [(c') than [I would soon] endure such disgrace"].

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication, 'had.'*
 { *Complement of predicate, 'rather.'* *
Object, 'die.'
Adverbial adjunct of the predicate, 'than [I would soon] endure
 such disgrace' (c').

Analysis of (c').

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'would endure.'

- 561 "I am not so foolish as to believe that." In full—(A) "I am not so foolish [(z')] as I should be foolish to believe that"].

Here the clause, "As I should — that," is co-ordinate with *so*, and in the adverbial relation to *foolish*. *As* is in the adverbial relation to the complement *foolish* understood. *To believe that* (i.e., *for believing that*, or *in believing that*) is an adverbial adjunct of the verb *should be*.

- 562 "I am not such a fool as to believe that." In full—(E) "I am not such a fool [(a')] as I should be a fool to believe that"].

Here the elliptical adverbial clause (a') qualifies the adjective *such*. The adverb *as* may be taken as qualifying the predicate *should be*.

- 563 "He looks as if he knew me." In full—"He looks as (he would look) if he knew me."

- 564 "I agree with you in so far as you adopt his opinion."

Here a comparison is instituted between *the extent to which* 'I agree,' and *the extent to which* 'you adopt his opinion.'

Each clause therefore involves a word denoting *extent*, qualified

* The explanation of this construction is not easy. It is frequently said that *had* is a corruption of *would*. If this were so, the difficulty would vanish; but there is good reason for believing that *had* is quite correct. The analogous construction with *lief* is unquestionably genuine. E.g., "*I had as lief not be, as live to be in awe of such a thing as I myself*"—(Shakespeare, *Julius Caesar*, i. 2); as also that with the comparative *liefer* or *liever*. Thus we find in Chaucer: "*Ne never had I thing so lief, ne liever*"—(Frank. Tale). This last example gives us a good clue to the construction. *Lief* and *liever* are *adjectives* (not *adverbs*) agreeing with the object of the verb *have*, which in this construction is a verb of incomplete predication (Gr. 891, 895), so that *lief* and *liefer*, or *liever*, are its *complements*. (Compare the phrases *lieb haben* and *lieber haben*, in German.) At present the use of the phrase *to have lief* is restricted to cases where the object of the verb *have* is a verb in the infinitive mood, and the adjective *lief* is qualified by the adverb *as*. The use of the comparative *liefer* or *liever* is obsolete. Now, in old English, we find *rather* (early or ready); comp. *rather*, superl. *ratherest*, used as adjectives. Milton speaks of *the rather primrose*, and Spenser of *the rather* (i.e., *earlier*) *lamb*. Thus, by taking *rather* as an adjective (giving the idea of *preference*, which easily springs out of the radical notion of the word), we get in the phrase *to have rather* a construction precisely analogous to that in *to have lief* (that is, *to hold or regard as dear or desirable*), or *to have liefer*: *have* being a verb of incomplete predication, *rather* its complement, and the dependent infinitive the object of *have*. Let it be observed that *I had sooner do so and so* is bad English. *Sooner* is not an adjective. We must say, *I would sooner*, &c. *I would rather* is good English, because *rather* is an adverb as well as an adjective. In the phrase *I had rather*, the verb *had* is in the subjunctive mood.

respectively by a demonstrative and a relative adverb of degree, by means of which the comparison is effected. At full length, therefore, the sentence will be, "I agree with you in so far as you adopt his opinion (far)."

- 565 "He knows that, inasmuch as I have told him." That is to say, the extent to which it is the fact that he knows that, is equivalent to the extent to which it is the fact that I have told him. The relative *as*, therefore, in the subordinate clause, qualifies a word (understood) denoting extent, and the whole adverbial clause is co-ordinate with the demonstrative *as* in the phrase *in as much*; the phrase *in as much* being in the adverbial relation to the verb *knows*.

- 566 "I cannot give you so much as five pounds." In full—"I cannot give so much as five pounds (are much)." (In Latin the correlatives *tantum* and *quantum* would be used; and *quantum* shows that the idea of quantity belongs as essentially to the dependent as to the main clause.)

- 567 "I cannot give you more than five pounds." The analogy of the preceding sentence shows that we must fill up the ellipsis thus:—"I cannot give you more than five pounds are much."

- 568 "Our habits are costlier than Lucullus wore."

Here again the original sense of *than* (= *when*) gives us an easy explanation of the ellipsis. 'Our habits are costlier than (when) Lucullus wore costly habits;' i.e., 'Taking Lucullus's wearing of costly habits as a standard of comparison, our habits are costlier.'

- 569 "More than twenty men were killed." That is, "More men than twenty (are many) were killed." In other words:—"When twenty are many (or, if twenty are regarded as many), more were killed."

- 570 "Whether he likes it or not, I shall do it." This is a contracted elliptical sentence.

Whether is equivalent to *if either* (Latin, *sive*, i.e., *si vel*). At full length we get two co-ordinate sentences.

(A) "If he likes it, I shall do it."

(B) "If he does not like it, I shall do it."

- 571 a "He cannot so much as read." In full—"He cannot (do) so much as (to) read (is much)." The elliptical adverbial clause '*as read*' is co-ordinate with the adverb *so*, and the connective adverb *as* qualifies *much* understood.

- 572 b "He was fond of all such amusements as cricket and rowing."

As, in the elliptical clause *as cricket and rowing are*, must be taken as a substitute for a relative pronoun (§ 412), and so forming the complement of the verb of incomplete predication *are*. The whole clause is in the attributive relation to *amusement*, and is co-ordinate with *such*. It has been before explained that the proper correlative of *such* (= *swa*-llc) is *which* (= *hwil*-lle). It is for this *which* that *as* does duty.

- 572c "Which when Beelzebub perceived, than whom, Satan except, none higher sat, with grave aspect he rose."

The objective case *whom* is anomalous, though the usage of the best writers sanctions it. If it were grammatically correct, it would also be correct to say, 'None sat higher than *him*.' In analysis 'than whom' must be treated as a mere *adverbial phrase*, it being impossible to supply the ellipsis so as to expand it into an adverbial clause.

- 572d. "Let us go."

Here *let* is the second person plural of the imperative mood of the verb *let*, which is a verb of incomplete predication, having *us* for its object and *go* for its complement, the subject of the imperative being, as usual, understood. Just as in the case of the objective complement (§395), of which in fact this is one variety, we have an attributive notion (§294), denoted by the infinitive *go*, attached to the object *us*. It is a blending of the objective and the infinitive complement. The grammatical relations of the words in the imperative sentence, 'Let [ye] him go' are the same as in the assertive sentence 'I let him go' (§357). 'I let him go' does not differ (grammatically) from 'I made him go,' which is closely analogous to 'I made him angry,' the only difference being that the attributive idea attached to the object is expressed by a verb in the one case, and an adjective in the other. The class of attributive words includes both (§294).

PARSING.

- 573 The preceding system of analysis still leaves us with groups of words in many cases, into the mutual relations of which it does not enter. When a minute account of each word of a sentence is given, including not only its syntactical relation to other words, but also its etymological inflections and accidents, the process is termed *parsing*. Two or three examples will show the mode in which it should be performed better than any system of rules.
- 574 "I told him that I did not know who had taken the red book that lay on the table."

I.—Personal pronoun of the first person, singular number, in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *told*.

told.—Transitive verb : in the active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, first person, singular number; in the predicative relation to *I*, with which it agrees in number and person.

him.—Personal pronoun of the third person and the masculine gender; in the singular number and objective case, standing in the adverbial relation to the verb *told*, of which it is the indirect object.

that.—Subordinative conjunction, connecting the substantive clause, "*I did not know—table*," with the verb *told*.

I.—Personal pronoun of the first person, in the singular number and nominative case: subject of the verb *did*.

did.—Auxiliary verb, in the active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, first person singular; in the predicative relation to *I*, with which it agrees in number and person.

not.—Adverb of negation, modifying the verb *did*.

know.—Transitive verb, in the active voice, infinitive mood, imperfect tense; depending on the verb *did*.

who.—Interrogative pronoun, in the singular number, third person, and nominative case, being the subject of the verb *had taken*.

had taken.—Transitive verb; in the active voice, indicative mood, past perfect tense, third person, singular number; in the predicative relation to the pronoun *who*, with which it agrees in number and person.

the.—Definite article, in the attributive relation to *book*.

red.—Qualitative adjective, in the positive degree of comparison; in the attributive relation to the noun *book*.

book.—Common noun, of the neuter gender; in the singular number and objective case, standing in the objective relation to the verb *had taken*.

that.—Relative pronoun, of the neuter gender, third person, and singular number, to agree with its antecedent *book*, and in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *lay*.

lay.—Intransitive verb; in the active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, third person, singular number, in the predicative relation to *that*, with which it agrees in number and person.

on.—Preposition governing the noun *table*.

the.—Definite article, in the attributive relation to the noun *table*.

table.—Common noun, of the neuter gender; in the singular number, objective case, governed by the preposition *on*.

EXERCISES.

The Numbers placed at the commencement of the Exercises are those of the Paragraphs in the Grammar to which they relate.

EXERCISES ON THE NOUN.

- 30, 31** Write out the following list of nouns, and draw one line under the common nouns, and two lines under the proper nouns :—

Boy, John, school, desk, Cæsar, mob, girl, Jane, class, army, general, Paris, William, God, gods, angel, ball, cricket, bagatelle, arrow, archery, archer, Robin Hood, horse, France, king, George, splendour, soldiers, Sussex, book, poet, Milton, bat, Alexander, baker.

- 33** Write out the following nouns, and draw one line under the abstract nouns, and two lines under the nouns of multitude :—

Herd, blackness, health, dog, mob, goodness, purity, city, cat, mouse, multitude, church, beauty, coach, flock, drove, holiness, stable, team, plough, happiness, dunce, hundred, thousand, crowd, duck, foolishness.

Write down ten common nouns which are the names of animals.

Write down ten common nouns which are the names of things which we eat.

Write down ten common nouns which are the names of things in the school-room.

Write down ten abstract nouns.

Write down ten proper nouns which are the names of persons.

Write down ten proper nouns which are the names of places.

Write down ten proper nouns which are the names of rivers.

- 34** Write down the abstract nouns which correspond to the following adjectives :—

Pure, simple, good, bad, worthy, splendid, just, meek, temperate, large, wide, broad, slow, quick, red, blue, sour, sharp, sweet, distant, near, soft, able, innocent, durable, brilliant, merry, brief.

Write down the adjectives which correspond to the following abstract nouns :—

Nobility, stupidity, fickleness, suppleness, height, depth, acidity, dependence, sleepiness, greenness, rigidity, ductility, sonority, infirmity, patience, condescension, prosperity, wisdom.

- 38 Write down in one column all the masculine nouns in the following list ; in another column all the feminine nouns ; in a third column all the neuter nouns ; and in a fourth column all the nouns of common gender :—

Cow, horse, dog, man, girl, ship, house, Robert, Jane, London, Thames, goose, hen, cock, bird, sheep, pig, boar, fox, uncle, nephew, John, vixen, lass, ox, form, desk, tree, servant, footman, maid, boy, nursemaid, baby, slate, gander, elephant, tiger, lioness, Maria, France, Napoleon, cart, infant, brother, lady, pen, lord, king, sovereign, queen, ruler, judge, author, cousin, sister, mother, aunt, box, speaker, William.

Write down ten other nouns of the masculine gender.

Write down ten other nouns of the feminine gender.

Write down ten nouns of common gender.

- 48—55 Write out the following nouns, and draw a line under those which are in the singular number, and two lines under those in the plural :—

Boy, man, pennies, sugar, strap, hens, shoes, fox, ewes, geese, man, hens, tigress, ladies, wren, dose, hose, clothes, feet, tooth, ox, vixen, oxen, fish, children, a sheep, three deer, steer, tax, boxes, sorceress, deacons, deaconess, cheese, valleys, trees, leas, grease, rice, dice, lice, cows, mouse, cruise, crews.

Write down ten other nouns in the singular number, and ten in the plural number.

Write down the plurals of

Book, sheaf, chimney, enemy, valley, duty, osprey, calf, echo, cargo, sky, crutch, church, dray, ray, day, city, army, loaf, wife, journey, beauty, way, leaf, grove, stuff, coach, gas, staff, puff, scarf, life, speech, mistress, horse, pony, ass, wharf, hoof, man, box, grotto, bunch, tooth, foot, trick, marquis, hero, brother, colloquy, thief, marble, fancy, goose, deer, sheep, negro, arch, toy, blemish, princess, torch, half, fancy, buoy, envoy, convoy, victory.

- 65, 75 In the following sentences point out first the nouns and pronouns which are in the nominative case, and then those which are in the objective case :—

I love John. John loves me. The boy likes play. Play tires the child. The children are tired with playing. The dog barks. We see a house. The men pulled down the house. The house was pulled down. Shut the door. The door was shut. Ring the bell. I fear him. He fears him. He is feared by us. The dogs are howling. Silver and gold have I none. He struck me. I hear a bird singing. Who struck John? Why did you go away? When were you there? The boys are in the garden. He struck me with a stone. They come

from London. We live at York. He ran against a post. How do you do? Tell me who did this. When will you come? We will come to-morrow. The horse kicked the groom. Did the horse kick you? The groom kicked the horse. Did the dog bite you? They are foolish. We scolded them. Who does not admire beauty? Let me go.

Make sentences with each of the following verbs :—

Hates, lives, smote, bark, sees, fell, ran, draws, gave, sent, hears.

Make ten other sentences containing a subject, a verb, and an object.

79 Decline the following nouns :—

Brother, horse, stag, beauty, envoy, negro, ass, woman, king, prince, queen, lady.

67 Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the nouns which are in the possessive singular and two lines under those which are the possessive plural, one line over those in the nominative case, and two lines over those which are in the objective case. Also point out on what nouns the possessive cases depend :—

He admires the lady's beauty. He saw the queens' courtiers. They live in kings' courts. The king's palace is large. The lady's robe was torn. I saw some ladies in the room. The ladies' dresses were handsome. The boys' exercises are badly written. I saw the boys at play. The boy's father has arrived. She made the women's dresses. Where is my wife's purse? The men slew their wives. The men heard of their wives' danger. Call the girls in. Give me the girls' books. Hold the horse's head. The horses are drinking water. The horses' hoofs are hard. He is paring the horses' hoofs. He stole John's sister's book. John stole his sister's books. The men's wages are due. My father's house is large. I saw John's brothers. He ran away from his father's house.

EXERCISES ON THE ADJECTIVE.

80—81 Write down in a column the adjectives in the following sentences, and write opposite each the noun which it qualifies :—

Give me two shillings. He rides a black horse. Wise men never waste time. Twenty men were killed. He heard of the poor man's death. The fine ladies' dresses are torn. The ladies' fine dresses are torn. He cropped the black horse's tail. The brown horse has a black tail. That man has two horses. Every man has two ears and one mouth. They travelled the whole day. Several carriages have passed this house. Take another seat. All men admire generous actions. No man likes pain. Which dish do you prefer? What books have you read? We have read these books. Do not tell such lies. Such conduct deserves punishment. He succeeded the first time. Each man received the same sum. Much precious time was lost. Many brave men were killed. That sentence is on the second page of the third volume. What nonsense you talk.

- 97 In the following sentences supply the nouns which are understood :—

I have read these books, but I have not read those. All go to one place. The meek shall inherit the earth. Which of these books have you read? Take this apple and give me that. He was punished for this. This is pretty. The poor suffer more than the rich. This picture is the prettiest. Which boy is the cleverest? Which of these two boys is the cleverer? My book is the prettiest. That is the prettiest book. John is the cleverest in the class. She is the prettiest of all my cousins. These are my children. That is John's hat. My apple is the biggest.

Write down separately the qualitative, quantitative, and determinative adjectives in the following list :—

Long, short, many, more, some, this, white, brown, alluring, two, second, ten, tenth, first, one, each, mine, thine, none, all, few, much, other, black, which, the, great, lovely, fierce, little, sleepy, wicked, just, happy.

Write down ten sentences containing qualitative adjectives, ten containing quantitative adjectives, and ten containing demonstrative adjectives.

- 104—110 Write down the comparative and superlative degrees of the following adjectives :—

Large, great, high, fierce, lovely, full, tame, rich, happy, handsome, common, merry, near, gay, cold, holy, healthy.

Write down the positive degree of the following adjectives :—

Prettier, rudest, sweetest, justest, gentler, finest, steeper, tenderer, worst, slenderest, duller, sweetest, gentlest, wittier, slower, tidiest, wealthy.

- 83 In the following sentences point out whether the adjective is in the attributive or in the predicative relation to the noun which it qualifies, paying particular attention to the cases in which the noun is not expressed :—

There is a white cow. He gave me ten apples. The apples are ripe. Which boy is the cleverest? They seem happy. He feels ill. Idle boys must be punished. The tallest boys are not always the strongest. He has many kind friends. The days are short. The nights are longest in winter. It is hottest in summer. We have the coldest weather in winter. My cousin is named Jane. A man riding at full gallop has passed the house. The soldiers, wearied with the march, halted. The soldiers are weary. Who gave you that pretty book? It is the prettiest I ever saw. What news is there? The reports are alarming. The man spread an alarming report. These mistakes are vexatious. The sleeping lion was aroused by the fierce dogs. The lion, sleeping in his den, was aroused. I saw the boys sleeping. The boys are sleepy. Those pears are the ripest. Those pears are ripe. When will the corn be ripe? Which is the way? Which wine is the best? The first volume is the best. The second volume is tedious. What time I am afraid I will trust in thee.

EXERCISES ON THE PRONOUNS.

- 131, 132 Write out the following sentences and draw one line under the substantive pronouns, and two lines under the adjective pronouns :—

I told him that. He heard that we had arrived. Who said so? Which wine do you prefer? Whose pen is this? Give me that book. I told him myself. Thou art the man. She is mad. What business is it of yours? One cannot but admire his perseverance. We ride every day. Who is that man whom you were speaking to? Our house was burned down. His father has come and is talking with mine. You may sit on either side.

- 128 Point out which of the adjective pronouns in the following sentences are used adjectively, and which are used substantively :—

On what day do you set out? I do not like this book; give me that. That is the style which I admire most. I could not find that book which you wanted. Will you have these or those? He gave twopenny to each of them. I do not love either of them. That is what I said. I cannot eat this meat: have you no other? You may have whichever ball you like. What happiness is in store for you! Tell the others what I said. What lovely weather! Pay me the money which you owe me.

- 144—159 Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the relative pronouns, and two lines under their antecedents :—

He who does wrong deserves punishment. Give this money to the poor man whose child was killed. They that seek me early shall find me. Whose is this book that I have found? Is that the man whom you spoke of? That is not the book which I gave you. You are not the person whom I expected. Which is the author whom you admire most? He departed the very day that I arrived. It is that that grieves me. It is this that I fear. That which you tell me is incredible. That which is false and mean should be despised. Those who love wisdom will find it. Come and see the pony that my father has given to my brother, who has just left the school at which he was for so many years. "This is the priest all shaven and shorn, that married the man all tattered and torn, that kissed the maiden all forlorn, that milked the cow with the crumpled horn, that tossed the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built."

- 160 Supply relative pronouns where they are understood in the following sentences :—

Pay me the money you owe me. Which was the road you took? Play me the tunes I love. Be reconciled with the man you have offended. That is not the book I gave you. I am come to pay for the goods I bought yesterday. He has not answered the letter I wrote him. Have you received the money I sent you? He is not the man I expected.

- 157, 163 In the following sentences point out when *that* is a relative pronoun and when it is a demonstrative pronoun :—

There is that man again. "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth." He to-day that sheds his blood with me shall be my brother. That man is guilty. What was that noise that I heard? Who is that man? Is that the horse that you bought? Whose is that book that you have in your hand? Avoid that which is sinful. Write down the words that I dictate. You said you did not know. That is not true. Who is he that wishes for more men? Tell that boy to be quiet. All the goods that he sells are bad. Cease that noise. What was that that you were saying? It is that that I fear. That is the hope that supports me. Show me the man that dares to climb that height. That horse is not worth the money that you gave for it.

144—160 Write out the following sentences; draw one line under the relative pronouns, and two lines under the interrogative pronouns :—

Which is the shortest road? Have you read the book which I gave you? Do you know what he said? Whom did he refer to? Who said so? Is that the man who said so? Do you know who did this? Did you see which way he went? Is that what you said? Tell me what you said? I want to know who broke the window. They do not know what to do. What is the matter with you? Do you know what that means? Did you hear what I said? By what means can we succeed? On what day will you come? Why do you tell me what I know already? When did you receive what I sent you? Who is there? Do you know the gentleman who has just arrived? Whose hat is this? Can you tell me whose hat this is? Do you know the man whose house was robbed? Will you tell me whom I am to give this to?

Write out the following sentences; draw one line under the relative and interrogative pronouns which are in the nominative case, and two lines under those which are in the objective case :—

Where is the man who did this? Give this to John, who is in the garden. He is a man whom I despise. Do not trust a man whom all shun. He is a man in whom I have no confidence. I never saw the man to whom you refer. Where is the pen which I gave you? Who has taken the pen which lay on my desk? I will show the horse which I bought yesterday. I do not like books that convey no instruction. This is the man whom I sent for. That is the book which I sent you for. Give me the book that I asked for. They that seek me early shall find me. I have seen the ship in which my brother is going to sail. Have you seen the ship which has just arrived? There is the ship of which my uncle is captain. To which of these persons did you refer? This is the hat which I had lost. That is the book which I spoke of. He is the very man that I was looking for. I love them that love me. He purchased the house which his brother had built. He no longer possesses the estate which once belonged to him. He avoids everything that interferes with his studies. What did you ask for? What did he say? What ails you? What induced you to say so? Which of them is right? Which of these do you want? Which pleases you most? Take whichever you like best. I will do whatever I like. He likes whatever is manly. He likes everything that I like. He likes everything that pleases me. He likes everything that I am fond of. He admires whatever is pretty. He avoids everything

that displeases me. To whom did you give the books that I had bought? Where are the flowers that you promised to send me? He has sold the horse that I gave him. To whom did he sell the house that he built? He has lost everything that belonged to him. Repeat what I said. Tell me what you want. Tell me who did that. Tell me what ails you. Read what follows. Correct the mistake which he made. Correct the mistakes which occur in that sentence. Send me the cake which you promised me. Have you received the letter that I sent you? Is that the way in which you treat your friends? That is not a dress that becomes her.

EXERCISES ON THE VERB.

- 178 Make a list of twenty transitive, and of twenty intransitive verbs.
- 179 In the following examples point out whether the verb is used transitively or intransitively :—

He speaks. He speaks French. He talks too loud. He is talking nonsense. He is eating. He is eating his dinner. He rides to town every day. I ride a black horse. He plays too eagerly. He plays the flute. He is working a sum. Yeast makes beer work. He strikes the ball. The ship struck. The snake twists and turns about. The earth turns round. He had twisted his ankle. He turned the man out of the room. The boy is spinning a top. The top spins round. I smell a rat. The rose smells sweet.

- 181, &c. Parse each of the verbs in the following sentences; that is, state its voice, mood, tense, number, and person, and point out its subject. If the verb is transitive and in the active voice, point out its object :—

The butcher killed a pig. The pig was squealing. I have learnt my lesson. We shall return presently. He went away. He was running away. They had forgotten their lesson. Ye will have finished the task. We are punished for our faults. He robbed his master. Thou hadst taken the money. The money has been taken. The army was defeated. We shall have been deceived. He thinks. They thought. She never thinks. We shall expect you. They were astonished. He will be surprised. Ye had been delighted. Tell me your name. Run away. The stream was running very fast. I shall soon be delivered. The letters had been sent. We had sent the letters. I am striking the gong. The gong is being struck. The gong had been struck. He had struck the gong. They heard the sound. The sound was heard. Thou hadst heard my voice. Voices had been heard. Not a voice was heard. Send for a doctor. The doctor was sent for. They will expect me. We shall be expected. We had already left. I ran as fast as I could. All the boys were running. Let me go. Do not let that alarm you. Five hundred men have been killed. The soldiers killed five hundred of the enemy. Where have you been? Where is

he? How many were present? We had been travelling all night. We have been learning our lessons. The master had explained them to us. The boys are playing. The dog is being beaten. We shall all be killed. We shall soon be there. You have not had your breakfast. Thou wilt have enough. We had been deceived. We love our parents. The children were delighted. A fire has been kindled. Stir the fire. When was the letter sent? How came you here? How has this mischief been caused? I am reading a book. This book has been torn. Who tore the book? The children were playing with it. A horse kicked him. He was kicked by a horse.

- 181 Express the sense of each of the following sentences by means of the passive voice of the verbs that are used; as, "He struck the boy," "The boy was struck by him."

The cat killed the mouse. The soldiers are defending the city. This does not surprise me. We love our parents. He hates meanness. The man has earned the reward. That surprised me. This will please you. I had not expected this. We shall refuse your request.

Express the sense of each of the following sentences by means of the active voice of the verbs that are used :—

We were overtaken by a storm. Has my letter been received by you? He was killed by the blow. The pig has been killed by the butcher. The letter was never received by us. Thou wilt be loved by all. I was being pushed by my neighbour.

- 187, 189 Point out which verbs in the following sentences are in the infinitive mood :—

Did you speak? Shall you go? We shall soon be there. Let me see it. Dare you say so? We heard him speak. You must depart. I let him go on. You need not stay. I cannot see. He could not reply. If I might but see him. You may be sure of it. Did you say that? I do not know. Do not let it fall. Do tell me his name. He does not hear. I can easily do that. I will try to do so. I long to depart. We hoped to succeed. To please you is our constant endeavour.

- 192—195 In the following sentences point out which verbs are in the indicative mood, and which are in the subjunctive mood :—

Oh that it were with me as in days that are past. How gladly would I have done it. He did so gladly. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. If this be granted, the proof easily follows. If this were true, he would not deny it. If he had said so, I should have believed him. He did not deny it. Unless you try hard, you will not succeed. Though hand join in hand, the wicked shall not go unpunished. I could not open the door when I tried. I could not open the door if I tried. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. He would not answer me when I called. He would persist in his contumacy, in spite of all I could say. If you would lend me fifty pounds, I should be much obliged to you. I

would not go, even if they were to send for me. If that really happened, it was a great calamity. If you had the money when he asked for it, you ought to have paid him. If I had the money, I would give it to you. If that was the case, why did you not tell me?

197—200 In the following examples, point out when the imperfect participle is used, and when the gerund :—

I see a man riding on horseback. A man passed by, running at full speed. I like reading. He hates lying. A lying witness ought to be punished. He gained his ends by using false pretences. In keeping thy commandments there is great reward. The officer fell while leading his troops into action. See yonder bark, struggling against the wind and tide. The centre of the group was occupied by a figure holding a globe. We fell in with a ship sailing to America. We arrived there first by taking a shorter route. He is fond of improving his mind. He lives by begging from his friends. He went about, begging from his friends.

Turn each of the following sentences into the negative form :—

I love you. I shall go away. I have finished my task. He returned yesterday. He will return to-morrow. They are coming back. You must do that. He is loved by his friends. He was killed by the enemy. I find this very pleasant. I had thought of leaving. He sent the book back yesterday.

Put the following sentences into the interrogative form :—

You are happy. We said so. They are here. We have some money. My brother did that. Your sister sings well. She is pretty. You like music. The man set out yesterday. My father will return to-morrow. The man was surprised at it. I do not understand the question. I am not well. You sent me a letter by post. We received a letter from home. You are not afraid of the danger.

EXERCISES ON THE ADVERB, THE PREPOSITION, AND THE CONJUNCTION.

262 Write down in separate columns the simple adverbs and the connective adverbs in the following list :—

Well, now, to-morrow, here, when, where, wherefore, how, therefore, yet, yes, quickly, as, so, quite, all, however, generally, enough, perhaps, often, early, little, twice, very, not, namely, above, whither, then, thither, once, immediately, why, thence, whereon, thus, while, within, that, than, wherein.

Supply adverbs to modify the adjectives in the following sentences :—

That house is — large. Do not eat — much fruit. I am — tired. My letter is — ready. He is — better. I am — obliged to you. I am — sorry for my fault. Will you have — more? Do not tell — many lies. That tree is — dead. Dinner is — ready.

- 272 Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the adjectives, and two lines under the adverbs:—

Do not speak so fast. I am going by a fast train. The mill is fast by the brook. He is a fast runner. Go on faster. Run quicker. He advanced with quicker steps. What a hard lesson! He hits hard. The tree is hard by the pond. He tried hard. My bed is hard. He is a just man. We were just starting. He did just what I expected. That decision was right. He lay right across the doorway. They advanced right up the hill. He is the worst boy in the class. He writes worst. I love John best. He is my best friend. She is less beautiful than her sister. He received less money. He is the most studious boy I ever saw. John will get most praise.

- 277—282 Write down in separate columns the prepositions that denote place, the prepositions that denote time, and the prepositions that denote causality.

- 277 In the following sentences point out the prepositions and the words that are governed by them, and state in each case whether the preposition marks the relation of a thing to a thing, of an action to a thing, or of an attribute to a thing:—

There is a horse in the meadow. I am fond of music. He rejoices in iniquity. A man on horseback has just passed. He is afraid of the dog. He killed the man with a sword. There is a man with a cocked hat. He is merry without being rude. Those men quarrelled with each other. They bade adieu to each other. Do not stand before me. Do not place yourself between me and the light. He is just in all his dealings. Such a master will be served with readiness. Come away from the window. The book is under the table. I see a book under the table. I see a book lying under the table. They are going to church. Stand behind me. Get off that chair. His conduct is beyond all praise. Do not come near me. This is past bearing.

- 284 Distinguish the prepositions from the adverbs in the following sentences:—

He got up behind. There is a garden behind the house. Do not lag behind. I told you that before. He departed before my arrival. I came the day before yesterday. I could not come before. The earth turns round. Run round the table. Open that box; there is a book inside. You will find a book inside that box. He repeated that over and over. I see a picture over the chimney-piece. Sit down. He ran down the hill. Run after him. That comes after. Go along.

He planted a row of trees along the river. That is above my reach. God reigns above. He is beneath my notice. From the summit of the hill we saw the villages lying beneath. The box was painted within and without. He met with troubles without end. That is the hill that he ran down. There is the church which we go to. Yonder is the village that he comes from. That is the piece which I cut off. That is the man whom I spoke of. That is the servant whom I packed off. Sing me the song that I am so fond of. Here is the box, but where is the book, which I put inside? That is the number which I wrote down. Which is the tree that you climbed up? He knocked down the pillar which I had set up.

259, &c. In the following sentences distinguish the adverbs from the conjunctions :—

Though I am poor, yet I am contented. He is rich, nevertheless he is unhappy. They are poor, because they are extravagant. He is industrious, and consequently he is successful. The man is neither wealthy nor wise. I believed, therefore have I spoken. Unless you try, you will not succeed. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. I will behave so as to please my parents. As you say so, I must believe it. Tell me why you did that? Where thou dwellest, I will dwell. He is rich and also generous. He cannot but grieve, for he has lost his best friend. I do not care whether you go or stay.

156, 150, 267, 288 In the following sentences point out when *that* is a demonstrative pronoun, when it is a relative pronoun, when it is a connective adverb, and when it is a conjunction :—

He said that he had not done it. I heard that he had arrived. Look at that star. I am so troubled that I cannot speak. He does that that he may vex me. He is the very man that I want. I am sure that he said so. That is certain. He is so lazy that he never does anything. His indignation was such that he could scarcely speak. I am sure that you never read that book that I gave you that you might study it. He says that we shall never succeed in that attempt. I am afraid that he says that, that he may deceive me. It is very strange that none of them heard it. He went to London in order that he might find a situation.

Let further practice be given by means of examples made or selected.

Exercises on the composition and derivation of words may

be given by requiring the pupil to produce a certain number of examples of each class.

- 297—304 Analyse the following compound words, arranging them in the classes denoted by the letters A, B, C, D, E, and showing of what they are composed :—

Breakfast. Salt-cellar. Counting-house. Home-sick. Beehive. Love-sick. Plaything. Sea-sick. Post-office. Busy-body. Hearth-stone. Stock-broker. Eavesdropper. Bedfellow. Clergyman. Pick-pocket. Gunpowder. Makeweight. Save-all. Daylight. By-word. Foot-stool. First-rate. Godsend. Grandmother. Glow-worm. Milk-sop. Lily-white. Storehouse. Sweetheart. Turnspit. Horror-struck. Heart-broken. Tale-bearing. Slipshod. Hare-brained. Spendthrift. Blackbird. Club-footed. Upraise. Downstruck. Bow-legged. Upstairs. Downhill. Therein Thenceforwards. Herein. However. Whenever. Underdone. Chatter-box. Old-fashioned. New-fangled. Overrun. Underlet. Farewell. Hereafter. Likewise. Nevertheless. Heart-stirring. God-fearing.

Analysis of Simple Sentences.

- 385 Make or select ten sentences having a simple subject.
 386 Make or select ten sentences having a compound subject.
 387 Make or select ten sentences having a complex subject.
 493 *a* Divide the following sentences into two parts, the first part consisting of the logical subject (*i.e.*, the *grammatical* subject, with all the adjuncts belonging to it), the second of the logical predicate (*i.e.*, the verb, and all that is attached to it).

The old church has fallen into ruins. The brave soldiers defended their post to the last. Fine, warm weather followed rain. A rich old uncle left him all his property. A stitch in time saves nine. The most difficult tasks are overcome by perseverance. The palace of the prince was set on fire. A horseman, wrapped in a huge cloak, entered the yard. The rent in his coat was made by an old nail. The laughing children sported round his knee. Place yourself in my situation. The horse, terrified by the lightning, ran away at full speed. Dismayed at the prospect, they beat a retreat.

- 493 *b* Take the preceding sentences, and separate the grammatical subject and its adjuncts in each. Specify also of what the adjuncts consist (§ 390). Do the same with the following examples :—

The owner of that estate is a fortunate man. The man's abject misery moved my compassion. A man on horseback passed me. The ancestors of this family were renowned. Water for drinking was very scarce. Disgusted by so many acts of baseness, the man's friends all deserted him. Does your uncle, the doctor, know of this? Whence

did the author of that book get his materials? Who in the world told you that? Every finite verb in a sentence must have a subject. John's account of the affair alarmed me. My brother John told me that. My cousin, the inventor of this machine, is dead.

Make or find twelve sentences in which the grammatical subject is enlarged (§ 388), and state in each case of what the enlargement consists.

- 493 c In the following sentences separate the logical predicate into its component parts:—

John gave me a shilling yesterday (§ 372, 4). I met the man in the street. I saw a man on horseback* just now. I saw the occurrence through a gap in the wall. To-day I shall help the men mowing the barley. I shall not go out of doors all day. Did you finish your Greek exercise during my absence? Send the fellow out of the house directly. I desire nothing better. I desire nothing more ardently. I told him my opinion pretty plainly. They have already tried the path over the mountains. He has already returned me all the money (§ 372, 4). Why have you kept this intelligence so long from me?

- 493 d Take the preceding sentences, and separate the object of the verb from its attributive adjuncts. Do the same with the following sentences:—

We heard the sound of the horn reverberating among the rocks. Everybody admires John's little sister. Who has not admired a noble ship sailing over the waves? Have you read this author's last work yet? The man struck the poor little boy on the head (§ 372, 2). The master praised the boy at the top of the class (§ 362, 4). I saw a soldier on horseback. I walked through the river on foot. The farmers want dry, warm weather for a month. He borrowed fifty pounds for a year. We have just bought a calf a month old. This general has just terminated a war of ten years' duration. Do you see that horse in the meadow?

- 493 e In the following sentences separate the complex predicate into its component parts, and specify whether the complement is a Subjective Complement, an Objective Complement, or an Infinitive Complement. (See §§ 393, 395.)

He grew rich suddenly. He called the man a liar. They became very poor. The wine tastes sweet. I am not happy. He is called John. He is thought wise. We do not deem the occurrence unfortunate. That step was deemed imprudent. His friends thought him insane. The number cannot be reckoned. He ought not to say so. The tradesman was declared insolvent. Nothing is more hateful. Nothing can be more abominable. I wish the boy safe back again. You may play in the garden. You must not touch that. They cannot escape. The prisoner was declared guilty. We consider this course expedient. He came laughing into the room. The dog ran away howling. She looks very pretty. He stood petrified with horror. We are wont to follow our own inclinations too much. He is said to have

* Observe that this does not indicate *where the act of seeing took place*.

poisoned his brother. He lives happy enough in his poverty. His threats were rendered ineffectual by the measures adopted. I am sure of pleasing you in this.

Make a sentence with each of the following transitive verbs, and then enlarge the predicate, 1. With an object; 2. With an object and an adverbial adjunct. Thus: *He loves. He loves his parents. He loves his parents with all his heart.*

Strike. Speak. Love. Stretch. Help. Touch. See. Lead. Draw. Hate. Feel. Slay. Join. Build. Govern. Raise.

Take the sentences formed in the last exercise, and enlarge the object in each with two or more attributive adjuncts.

493*f*, 494—505 Give the complete analysis of the following sentences:—

No complete survey of the country having been made, it is impossible to state accurately the amount of cultivated land. Did you ever hear a full account of that adventure? Virtue and happiness go hand in hand. Not being acquainted with the facts of the case, I must decline pronouncing an opinion. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. In coming to a decision on this point, we must be guided solely by the evidence before us. The host himself no longer shall be found careful to see the mantling bliss go round. Teach erring man to spurn the rage of gain. Downward they move, a melancholy band. He used a strong stick to support his feeble steps. I have experienced nothing but kindness at his hands. We can but hope for the best. There is nothing but roguery to be found in villainous man. There live not three good men unchanged in England. For mine own part, my lord, I could be well contented to be there, in respect of my love to your house. Considering all this (§ 283), the escape of so many is astonishing. Except my brother, no one was in the room at the time. I have too much to do* to stay here. He did not give the boys enough to eat. I am doubtful of the wisdom of this proceeding. It is impossible to understand† such nonsense. The heat of the climate renders it almost impossible to work. I left him almost speechless. I found this flower in the hedge. I found him at the point of death. Who taught you those bad manners? (§ 372, 4.)

Analysis of Complex Sentences.

1. Sentences containing Substantive Clauses.

506—517 Analyse the following sentences, having first enclosed the substantive clauses in brackets:—

I know that your story cannot be true. It is scarcely to be expected

* To do forms an attributive adjunct of much. To stay is an adverbial adjunct of have.

† To understand, &c., is in apposition to it.

that he will succeed in that attempt. Tell me how old you are. I wish to know when this message was delivered. It is my opinion that you ought to adopt a different plan. The fact that you vouch for the truth of this statement is enough for me. It is a question among doctors which mode of treatment is the most successful. But that I knew him to be a man of honour, I could not have believed the story (§ 517). He told me he knew all about it. I will spend my last shilling but I will bring him to justice (§§ 403, 517). Tell me why you think so. Show me where you hid yourself. In case you succeed, write to me. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish (§§ 283, 372, 5).

2. Sentences containing Adjective Clauses.

518. &c. Analyse the following sentences, having first enclosed the adjective clause in brackets:—

That is the man who stole your purse. He that is down need fear no fall. They that will be rich fall into temptation and a snare. I have lost the money you gave me (§ 409). Who steals my purse, steals trash. Pay the man what you owe him (§§ 872, 4, 521). What I said was this. What he wants is to have his own way. What was the opinion of the judge who tried the case? I will repeat what I said to you. What do you think of the man who could do this? The reason why you cannot succeed is evident (§ 408). That is the place where I hid myself. The fortress whither the defeated troops had fled was soon captured. Blessed is he whose transgressions are forgiven. This is the only witchcraft I have used. We can never recover the time we have mis-spent. Where is the book I gave you yesterday. In me thou seest the twilight of such day as after sunset fadeth in the west. His behaviour is not such as I like (§ 412).

3. Sentences containing Adverbial Clauses.

- 414—442, 524—532 Analyse the following sentences, enclosing the adverbial clauses in brackets, and specifying to which of the various classes of adverbial clauses they belong:—

I will tell you the secret when I see you. He still lay where he fell. He was so altered that I did not know him. He is happy because he is contented. While he is here, we shall have no peace. If you do that, you will suffer for it. I must not give you the book, for it is not mine. He will go to ruin unless he alters his conduct. He did not pay me when I called on him, because he had no money. If this account is true, the man is much to be pitied. Whatever may be the consequence, I will do what I have said. He is not happy, although he is so rich; for his only son has taken to vicious courses. Wherever you go, I will follow you. However dangerous such a course may be, it is the only one that we can adopt. I will walk in the garden until you return. As the tree falls so it will lie. He left the room, that he might not be drawn into the quarrel. The mountain is so high that there is always snow on the top of it. The higher you climb,* the wider will the

* This adverbial clause qualifies *wider*, and is co-ordinate with the which precedes *wider*.

prospect be (§ 270). She is as good as she is beautiful. I doubt not but to die a fair death for all this, if I escape hanging for killing that rogue.* A plague upon it when thieves cannot be true to one another. An I have not ballads made on you all and sung to filthy tunes, let a cup of sack be my poison.

- 507 In the following examples, substantive clauses contain other clauses within them. Enclose the containing and the contained clauses by brackets of *different* sorts. Prefix a properly marked letter to each clause, and then put the letter that denotes the *containing* clause before that which denotes the *contained* clause.

He heard that the Helvetii had burned all the corn except what they were about to take with them (§§ 283, 372, 5, 521). He said he would return the book when he had read it. I wish the boy would finish the task I set him. Tell me how old you were when your father died. Who told you that I built the house which you see? But that my foot slipped as I turned the corner, I should have won the race. He fears that his father will ask him where he has been. But that I told him who did it, he would never have known.

In the following examples, adjective clauses contain other clauses within them. Enclose the containing and the contained clauses by brackets of different sorts. Prefix a properly marked letter to each clause, and then put the letter that denotes the *containing* clause before that which denotes the *contained* clause.

The person who told you that I said so is mistaken. The child who does not mind when he is spoken to must be punished. He is not such a fool as I thought he was (§ 412). Scouts were sent out who were to see in what direction the foe had retreated. There are men who care not what they say. The house where I lived when I was in town has been pulled down. The man who does the best that he can deserves praise. Whoever maintains that genius by itself can accomplish everything, is mistaken. I have only done what I told you I would do.†

In the following examples adverbial clauses contain other clauses within them. Enclose the containing and the contained clauses by brackets of different sorts. Prefix a properly marked letter to each clause, and then put the letter that denotes the *containing* clause before that which denotes the *contained* clause.

When I have heard what you have to say, I will decide the matter. If I were to deny that I did it, I should not speak the truth. If you had stood where I placed you, you would have seen better. Unless you

* Mind that *for killing, &c.*, is not an adverbial adjunct of the verb *escape*.

† The construction of *what* in this clause is the same as that of *that* in "I told you I would do that."

give me what you have in your hand I will punish you. I am so surprised that I cannot tell at once what I ought to do. I chid him because he did not come when I called him. I am angry because you have lost the book that I lent you.

In the following examples each sentence contains a subordinate clause which contains another subordinate clause, which in its turn contains a third. Bracket and analyse them.

I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the character which he bore among his neighbours. I know that he would never have spread such a report if he had not believed what your brother told him. Men who see clearly how they ought to act when they meet with obstacles are invaluable helpers. I will not excuse you unless you tell me who it was who was the author of that statement. It would be well if all men felt how surely ruin awaits those who abuse their gifts and powers. It was so hot in the valley that we could not endure the garments which we had found too thin when we were higher up among the mists. I need not tell you how glad I am that you have abandoned the design which you mentioned to me.

Contracted Sentences.

445, 449, 452. Fill up and analyse the following sentences :—

You must either be quiet or leave the room. Neither John nor his brother was present. He wrote the exercise quickly, but well. He pursued, but could not overtake the retreating enemy. The man left the house, but soon returned. He is a good writer, but a bad speaker. They are poor but honest. You may go and play in the garden. The larynx, or rather the whole of the windpipe taken together, besides its other uses, is also a musical instrument.

Let the rich deride, the proud disdain,
These simple blessings of the lowly train.

I am not mad : I would to heaven I were ; for then, 'tis like, I should forget myself. Oh, if I could, what grief should I forget ! I'll answer thee in any fair degree, or chivalrous design of knightly trial. My life thou shalt command, but not my shame. I have not decided whether I will go or not. He yields neither to force nor to persuasion. It is uncertain whether he wrote the book or not. Either John or you have made a great mistake. He allowed no day to pass without either writing or declaiming aloud. I love and honour that man. He soon detected and punished the offender.

Sentences containing Elliptical Clauses.

453, 544, &c. Analyse the following sentences, having first supplied the words that are understood :—

He looks as stupid as an owl. He is not so clever as his brother. He is as rich as his brother. He is richer than I am. To prevaricate is as bad as lying. He is not so wise as he thinks. I had rather die

than endure such a disgrace. It is not so bad to suffer misfortune as to deserve it. Better is a dinner of herbs where love is, than a stalled ox and hatred therewith. I will do as you desire. He is not so rich as he once was. He is better to-day than yesterday. A thousand years in Thy sight are but as yesterday when it is passed. He is as fond of sport as ever. She is more captivating than ever. It is better to die than to live in such misery. I am not such a fool as to tell him my secret. It would be better to resign his claims at once than to spend all his fortune in lawsuits. Oh, that it were with me as in days that are past! It seems as if we should never get to our journey's end. Even this is better than nothing. This is better than if we had lost everything. He looked as if he could kill me. I'd rather be a dog, and bay the moon, than such a Roman. He told me that wisdom was better than wealth; as if I did not know that before. I would give a thousand pounds an I could run as fast as thou canst. I'll shed my dear blood drop by drop in the dust, but I will raise the down-trod Mortimer as high in the air as this unthankful king. An'twere not as good a deed as drink to turn true man and leave these rogues, I am the veriest varlet that ever chewed with a tooth. What can be worse than to dwell here driven out from bliss? Rather than be less, he cared not to be at all. For mine own part, if I were as tedious as a king, I could find it in my heart to bestow* it all on your worship.

* The infinitive phrase *to bestow, &c.*, is in apposition to it, the object of *find*.

APPENDIX A.

Anglo-Saxon Forms of some Important Words.

1. The demonstrative and relative pronoun was thus declined:—

	Singular.			Plural.
	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	M. F. & N.
Nom.	se (pe)	seo (peó)	þæt	þā
Gen.	þæs	þære	þæs	þāra (þæra)
Dat.	þam (þæm)	þære	þam (þæm)	þām (þæm)
Acc.	þone (þæne)	þā	þæt	þā
Abl.	þý, þe	—	þý þe	—

As a demonstrative, this pronoun answered to the Latin *is, ea, id*.

2. There was another demonstrative word, answering to the Latin
- hic, hæc, hoc*
- , which was declined as follows:

	Singular.			Plural.
	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	M. F. & N.
Nom.	þes	þeós	þis	þās
Gen.	þises	þise	þises	þissa
Dat.	þisum	þisse	þisum	þisum
Acc.	þisne	þās	þis	þās
Abl.	þeós	—	þeós	—

3. The following are the forms of the personal pronouns:—

First Person Sing.		Second Person Sing.		Third Person Sing.		
				M.	F.	N.
Nom.	ic		þú	he	heó	hit
Gen.	mín		þín	his	híre	his
Dat.	me		þe	him	híre	him
Acc.	me (mec)		þe (pec)	hine	hí (hig)	hit

Dual.		Dual.		Plural.		
	Plural.		Plural.			
Nom.	wit		git		hí (hig)	
Gen.	uncer		incer		híra (heora)	
Dat.	unc		inc		him (heom)	
Acc.	unc(uncit) us		inc (incit) eow (eowic)		hí (hig)	

It is worthy of notice that in Anglo-Saxon there was a *dual* number in the pronouns of the first and second persons, and that the *Dative* and *Accusative* forms are not always the same. The genitive plural *ure* has probably lost the letter *n*; *ouren* (for *of us*) is found in Wiclif. Chaucer uses *they* for the nominative plural, but *her* and *hem* for *their* and *them*.

4. The interrogative pronoun *hwa* was thus declined:—

	M.	F.	N.
<i>Nom.</i>	hwá		hwæt
<i>Gen.</i>	hwæs		hwæs
<i>Dat.</i>	hwám (hwæm)		hwam (hwæm)
<i>Acc.</i>	hwone (hwæne)		hwæt
<i>Abl.</i>			hwi

5. Declension of Nouns.

FIRST DECLENSION.

(Nouns ending in essential *a* and *e*.)

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	(All Genders.)
<i>Nom.</i>	nam-a	tung-e	eag-e	-an
<i>Gen.</i>	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-ena
<i>Dat.</i>	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-um
<i>Abl.</i>	nam-an	tung-an	eag-e	-an

SECOND DECLENSION.

(Nouns ending in a Consonant, and Masculines in *-e*.)

	Masc.		Fem.		Neut.	
	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i>	hund	-as	spræc	-a	word	(as in Sing.)
<i>Gen.</i>	hund-es	-a	spræc-e	{ -a -ena	word-es	-a
<i>Dat.</i>	hund-e	-um	spræc-e	-um	word-e	-um
<i>Abl.</i>	hund	-as	spræc-e	-a	word	(as in Sing.)

The Third Declension presents no additional forms of special importance.

6. Declension of Adjectives.

Adjectives preceded by a demonstrative word had their three genders declined like the masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns of the first declension.

When not preceded by a definitive word, adjectives were declined as follows:—

	Singular.			Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
<i>Nom.</i>	gód	gód	gód	góde	gódu
<i>Gen.</i>	gódes	gódre	gódes	gódra	gódra
<i>Dat.</i>	gódum	gódre	gódum	gódum	gódum
<i>Acc.</i>	góðne	góðe	gód	góðe	góðu
<i>Abl.</i>	góðe	góðre	góðe		

7. Conjugation of Verbs.

A. VERBS OF THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

*First Class.—Nerjan (to preserve).**Inf.—nerjan. Imp. Part.—nerjende. Perf. Part.—(ge)nered.**Indicative Mood.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. nerje	nerjað	1. nered	neredon
2. nerest	nerjað	2. neredest	neredon
3. nereð	nerjað	3. nered	neredon

Subjunctive Mood.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1, 2, and 3. nerje	nerjen	1, 2, and 3. nered	neredon

*Imperative.—Sing., nere. Plural., nerjað.**Second Class.—Lufjan (to love).**Inf.—lufjan. Imp. Part.—lufjende (lufigende).**Perf. Part.—(ge)lufod.**Indicative Mood.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. lufje (lufige)	lufjað (lufigeað)	1. lufode	lufodon
2. lufast	lufjað (lufigeað)	2. lufodest	lufodon
3. lufað	lufjað (lufigeað)	3. lufode	lufodon

Subjunctive Mood.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1, 2, and 3. lufje (lufige)	lufjen (lufigen)	1. lufode	lufodez

*Imperative.—Sing., lufa. Plural., lufjað.**Third Class.—Hýran (to hear).**Inf.—hýran. Imp. Part.—hýrende. Perf. Part.—(ge)hýred.**Indicative Mood.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. hýre	hýrað	1. hýrde	hýrdon
2. hýrest	hýrað	2. hýrdest	hýrdon
3. hýreð	hýrað	3. hýrde	hýrdon

Subjunctive Mood.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1, 2, and 3. hýre	hýren	1, 2, and 3. hýrde	hýrden

B. VERBS OF THE STENG CONJUGATION.

Niman (*to take*).*Inf.*—niman. *Imp. Part.*—nimende. *Perf. Part.*—(ge)numen.*Indicative Mood.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. nime	nimað	1. nām	nāmon
2. nimeest	nimað	2. nāme	nāmon
3. nimeð	nimað	3. nām	nāmon

Subjunctive Mood.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1, 2, and 3. nime	nimen	1, 2, and 3. nāme	nāmen

Creopan (*to creep*).*Indicative Mood.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Preterite Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. creópe	creópað	1. creap	crupon
2. crýpst	creópað	2. crupe	crupon
3. crýpð	creópað	3. creap	crupon

*The Verb 'to be' (See § 251).**Inf.*—beón, wesan. *Imp. Part.*—wesende. *Perf. Part.*—(ge)wesen.*Indicative Mood.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>			
	1	2	3
<i>Sing.</i>	{ beóm (beó)	bist (býst)	býð
	{ eom	eart	is (ys)
	{ beoð	beoð	beoð
<i>Plural.</i>	{ sindon (sind)	sindon (sind)	sindon (sind)
	{ aron	aron	aron

Preterite Tense.

	1	2	3
<i>Sing.</i>	wæs	wære	wæs
<i>Plural.</i>	wæron	wæron	wæron

*Subjunctive Mood.**Present Tense.*

	1	2	3
<i>Sing.</i>	{ beô sîe (sî, seô) wese	{ beô sîe (sî, seô) wese	{ beô sîe (sî, seô) wese
<i>Plural.</i>	{ beôn sîen (sîn) wesen	{ beôn sîen (sîn) wesen	{ beôn sîen (sîn) wesen

Preterite Tense.

<i>Sing.</i>	wære	wære	wære
<i>Plural.</i>	wæren	wæren	wæren

Imperative.

<i>Sing.</i>	beô	wes
<i>Plural.</i>	boôô	wesaô

The foregoing are the leading inflections of the Anglo-Saxon, or *First Period* of English. (See *Preliminary Notice*, p. 6.)

In the *Second Period* we find a weakening of the broad vowels (*a*, *o*, and *u*) in suffixes to *e*, and a tendency to drop some suffixes altogether. The use of *-es* as a plural suffix increases. *Es* also begins to be used as a genitive suffix in feminine nouns. Some suffixes properly belonging only to particular declensions begin to be used indiscriminately in all. In adjectives of the strong declension suffixes do not always appear in their full form. In the weak declension they are often replaced by *-e*, a change which in the Northern dialect applied to the strong declension as well.

The inflections of the demonstrative or relative pronoun *se*, *seo*, *þæt* (now *he*, *seo*, *þæt*) are sometimes dropped, so that we get an uninflected form *the*, which, as a demonstrative, is the modern definite article. The neuter relative *þæt* or *that* was used with antecedents of any gender.

In verbs the gerundial infinitive often ended in *-en* or *-e*, instead of *-enne* or *-anne*, in place of which *-inde* is also found. *Shall* and *will* began to come into use as ordinary auxiliaries. The old prefix *ge* of perfect participles was weakened to *i*, and frequently dropped, as was also the *-n* of the suffix.

The simplification of the grammar is especially observable in the Northern dialect.

The *Third Period* exhibits a continued weakening of the old forms, spoken sounds and their written representatives being both in an unsettled state. The influence of two opposed systems of accentuation is traceable (§ 27); grammatical and natural gender begin to coincide, and differences of declension connected with differences of gender cease.

In nouns the inflections have dwindled down to the plural suffix *-s*, *-es*, *-is*, or *-ys*, used without regard to gender or ancient modes of declension (*-en* being however still used in a large number, and a few plurals being formed by the suffixes *er*, *re*, or *e*, or by a change of vowel); the ordinary genitive suffix *-s*, *-es*, or *-is* (curiously dropped in the case of the family names *father*, *mother*, *brother* and *sister*, and of several feminine nouns,

but found in plural genitives like *mennes*); and the occasional genitive plural suffix *-ene*. Traces of a dative singular in *-e* are still found. Both cases are often expressed by means of prepositions.

In adjectives the only suffix is *-e*, which is used partly after demonstratives, and partly to denote the plural. The duals of the personal pronouns disappear. *Sche, sho, or ho*, replaces the feminine *hes*.

As regards verbs, various strong verbs get the weak inflection; *-e* in the first person singular present is often dropped, and in the second *-est* is sometimes changed to *-ist* or *-yst*. In the plural *-ath* or *-eth* is sometimes replaced by *-en*, of which the *-n* is sometimes dropped. In the preterite of the strong conjugation the change of vowel which marked the second person singular and the plural disappears, and the suffix *-est* or *-ist* comes in to mark the second person singular in this tense as well as in the present. Sometimes *-es* is found for *-est*. The *n* of the plural is sometimes dropped, and is rarely used in the subjunctive mood. In weak verbs *-ed* replaces *-od*, where the latter termination had been used. The final *n* of the infinitive is commonly dropped, so that the mood ends in *-e*. The *g* or *j* of the connecting syllable in such Anglo-Saxon verbs as *lufjan* or *lufgan* was sometimes retained in the form of *i* or *y*, giving rise to such infinitives as *makie, answerye*.* The participial suffix *-inde* or *-ynd* is often replaced by *-ing* or *-yng*.

In the *Fourth Period*, the Midland section of the Northern dialect becomes predominant. In nouns the dative suffix entirely disappears. Plurals in *-en*, or with a modified vowel, become merely exceptional cases. The names of relationship (*father, mother, &c.*) are less commonly used without their genitive suffix. The inflections of adjectives are much the same as in the preceding period. The substantive use of the genitive cases of the pronouns disappears, the possessive sense being expressed by the pronominal adjectives, and all other senses by means of prepositions. *They (thei)* is used for the nominative plural of the demonstrative of the third person, but *here* and *hem* still maintain their ground as genitive and dative. The plural *tho* (= *those*) is still sometimes used. The short form *I* (often written *i*) for *ich* or *ic*, though found in the preceding period, becomes more common in this.

In verbs the Weak Conjugation becomes more and more common. The plural suffix *-eth* is usually replaced by *-en*, the *n* of which is often dropped. In the imperative mood the suffix *-eth* is usually, but not invariably employed. As the period advances, the infinitive more and more frequently drops its suffix.

E is a common adverbial termination. As compared with the preceding period, this is one of settlement and reconstruction.

In accentuation a reaction against the French system sets in, and numerous French words are brought under the laws of the English system.

The *Fifth Period*, that of *Modern English*, is marked by a still further simplification of the accidence, and the gradual settlement of the orthography and accentuation of words, resulting in that form of the language which is now in vogue.

* In Somersetshire such infinitives as *sewy, reapy, nursy*, are still heard.

APPENDIX B.

J. A List* of some Celtic Words preserved in English.

bag	crock-ery	gown	lath	rug
bard	crag	griddle	mattock	size
basket	crowd (fiddle)	gruel	mesh	smooth
barrow	sudgel	grumble	mop	soak
bog	dainty	gyve	muggy	solder
bran	darn	hawker	pail	tackle
bump	flannel	hem	pan	tall
button	fleam	hog	peck	tinker
bug-bear	flaw	knell	pitcher	trudge
cabin	funnel	knock	rail	welt
clout	fur	knoll	rasher	whip
coble	glen	lad	ridge	wicket
cock-boat	goblin	lass	rim	wire

The following geographical names are of Celtic origin :—*Rivers* :—Avon, Dee, Don, Ouse, Severn, Stour, Thames, Trent. *Hills* :—Cheviot, Chiltern, Grampian, Malvern, Mendip. *Islands* :—Arran, Bute, Man, Mull, Wight. *Counties* :—Devon, Dorset, Kent. *Towns* :—Liverpool, Penrith, Penzance.

The following Celtic elements are found in some geographical names† :—*Aber* (mouth of a river), as, 'Aberdeen, Ater-brothwick, Aberwick (Berwick);' *Auchin* (field), as, 'Auchindoir, Auchinleck;' *Ard* or *Aird* (high, projecting), as, 'Arddnamuchan, Ardrishaig;' *Bal* (village), as, 'Balmoral;' *Ben* or *Pen* (mountain), as, 'Ben Nevis, Penmaenmawr;' *Blair* (field clear of wood), as, 'Blair Athol;' *Bras* (rough ground), as, 'Braemar;' *Cuer* (fort), as, 'Caerleon (Carlisle);' *Combe* or *Comp* (valley), as, 'Compton, Ilfracombe, Appuldurcombe;' *Dun* (hill), as, 'the Downs, Dumbarton;' *Inch* (island), as, 'Inchkeith, Inchcape;' *Inver* (mouth of a river), as, 'Inverness, Inverary;' *Kill* (cell, chapel), 'Kilmarnock;' *Lin* (deep pool), 'Linthgow, King's Lynn;' *Llan* (church), 'Llandaff, Launceston;' *Tre* (town), 'Coventry (town of the convent), Oswestry;' *Strath* (broad valley), 'Strathfieldsaye.'

II. Scandinavian Words and Elements in English.

The most important of these are found in some geographical names‡ :—

ark	(temple or { Arkholm	beck (brook), Caldbeck
argh	{ altar { Grimsargh	by (town), Whitby

* This list is mainly extracted from a longer one given by Mr. Garnett in the 'Transactions of the Philological Society,' vol. 1., p. 171.

† See Angus, *Handbook*, &c., p. 18; Bain, *English Grammar*, p. 124.

‡ This list is taken from a larger one given by Dr. Adams (*Eng. Lang.* p. 6.)

dal (valley), Dalby		holm (island), Langholm
ey, a (island), {	Orkney	ness (headland), Skipness
	Grimsa	scar (steep rock), Scarborough
fell (rocky hill), Scawfell		skip (ship), Skipwith
ford {	Seaford	thing {
forth { (inlet) {	Seaforth	ting { (place of meet-
firth {	Holmfirth	ding { ing) {
force (waterfall), Mickleforce		thorp {
garth { (enclosure) {	Dalegarth	throp { (village) {
guard {	Fishguard	toft (small field), Lowestoft
gill (valley), Ornesgill		with (wood), Langwith

III. Saxon Elements of English.

[Nothing more is attempted here than to enumerate the most important classes into which the Saxon words of English may be distributed, and to give a few examples.]

1. The pronouns, numerals, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives of irregular comparison, and the auxiliary, defective, and (so-called) irregular verbs.

2. Monosyllabic derivatives formed by a modification of the root vowel or of the final consonant, as *ditch* (from *dig*), *bless* (from *bliss*) and the majority of the words formed by strictly Saxon suffixes.

3. Most words denoting common natural objects and phenomena, as—

cloud	evening	light	silver	sun
dale	flood	moon	snow	thunder
dawn	ground	morning	spring	water
day	heat	night	star	wind
dew	hill	noon	stone	world
earth	ice	rain	stream	winter
east	iron	sea	summer	year
egg	lead			

4. Words relating to the family, household, and farm, as—

brother	bath	door	chaff	scythe
child	beam	dough	cheese	wheat
daughter	bed	home	corn	ash
father	bolster	hearth	cow	beech
friend	besom	kettle	delve	berry
husband	bread	loaf	harvest	brick
kin	brew	oven	hay	fir
mother	broth	roof	hemp	grass
sister	cloth	thatch	honey	oak
wife	comb	barley	milk	oats
widow	cook	barn	plough	tree, &c.
bake	cradle	calf	rake	

5. The names of most of the parts of the body, as—

beard	brain	ear	foot	heel
body	breast	eye	hair	knee
bone	breath	finger	hand	leg
bosom	brow	fist	heart	lip
blood	chin	flesh	head	mouth, &c.

6. The names of common animals, as—

ape	dove	hare	man	ruddock
bear	fish	hawk	owl	throistle
bee	foal	horse	ox	turtle
beetle	fowl	hound	sheep	weevil
bird	fox	lamb	raven	worm
deer	goose	lark		

7. Terms for common qualities and actions, as—

bold	high	ask	buy	find
blind	low	hear	chaffer	fly
bright	holy	bid	chew	get
broad	hot	bind	come	give
cold	old	bite	dip	go
dark	quick	blaze	do	have
dead	rough	bleach	drink	kill
deaf	sock	blow	eat	love
good	smooth	bring	fear	look
hard	pretty	burn	fill	make, &c.

8. Names of common things—weapons, tools, clothes, &c.—

awl	bridge	hat	name	
bank	food	knife	ship	arrow
book	fire	meat	sword	bill
boat	hook	nail	spear	

IV. The Classical Element in English.

The greater part of the abstract terms in English, and words relating to religion, law, science, and literature, are of Latin or Greek origin. Most words of three or more syllables are of classical origin, and a very large number of those of two syllables, the exceptions being mostly words formed by *English* suffixes, from monosyllabic roots. Most monosyllabic words in English are of Teutonic origin, but many are derived from Latin and Greek, the greater part having come to us through the French.* The following belong to this class†:—

ace (<i>as</i>)	aunt (<i>amita</i>)	brace (<i>brachium</i>)
age (<i>ætaticum</i>), <i>Old</i>	bail (<i>bajulus</i>)	brief (<i>brevis</i>)
Fr. <i>édage</i>)	balm (<i>balsamum</i>)	broach (<i>brochus</i>)
aid (<i>adjutum</i>)	base (<i>bassus</i>)	bull (<i>bulla</i>)
aim (<i>aestimare</i>)	beast (<i>bestia</i>)	cage† (<i>cavea</i>)
air (<i>aer</i>)	beef (<i>boves</i>)	camp (<i>campus</i>)
aisle (<i>ala</i>)	blame (<i>blasphemia</i>)	cane (<i>canna</i>)
alms (<i>ελεημοσυνη</i>)	boil (<i>bullire</i>)	car
arch (<i>arcus</i>)	boon (<i>bonus</i>)	carry } (<i>carrus</i>)
ark (<i>arca</i>)	bowl (<i>bulla</i>)	charge }

* It is, however, a great mistake to suppose that a word taken from the French language is necessarily of *classical* origin. Some writers forget that the Franks and Normans were of Teutonic origin.

† The words from which they are derived are appended. Those in *italics* are of a post-classical age.

‡ The change of a *b*, *p*, or *v* between vowels into the sound of soft *g* is found in several words.

cape (caput)	feign (fingere)	mix (misceo)
cash (cassa)	fence (de-fensum)	mood (modus)
cease (cessare)	fierce (ferus)	mop (mappa)
chafe (calefacere)	fife (pipare)	mount (mons)
chain (catena)	fig (ficus)	niece (neptis)
chalk (calx)	file (filum)	noise (noxia)
chair (cathedra)	flame (flamma)	noun (nomen)
chance (cadentia)	flour }	nurse (nutrix)
chant (cantare)	flower } (flor-es)	ounce (uncia)
charm (carmen)	flute (flatus)	pace (passus)
chase (captiare)	foil (folium)	pain (poena)
chief (caput)	force (fortis)	paint (pingere)
clang (clangor)	forge (fabrica)	pair (par)
claim (clamare)	found (fundere)	pale (palleo)
coast (costa)	fount (fons)	paunch (panter)
coin (cuneus)	frail (fragilis)	pay (pacare)
cook (coquus)	frock (flocus)	peace (pax)
coop (cupa)	frown (frons)	peach (persica)
couch (collocare)	fruit (fructus)	pierce (pertusum)
count (comes)	fry (frigere)	place (platea)
count (computare)	fuse (fundere)	plait (plectere)
core (cor)	glaive (gladius)	plea }
cork (cortex)	glut (glutire)	plead } (placitum)
cost (constare)	gorge (gurgis)	plum (prunum)
coy (quietus)	gout (gutta)	plunge (plumbicare)
crape (crispus)	gourd (cucurbita)	point (punctum)
cup (cupa)	grant (credentare)	poise (pensum)
croak (crocitare)	grease (crassus)	poor (pauper)
cue (cauda)	grief (gravis)	porch (porticus)
cull (colligere)	gross (grossus)	pound (pondus)
dame (domina)	gulf (κολπος)	praise (pretiare)
date (datum)	heir (heres)	pray (precari)
daunt (domitare)	host (hospit-)	preach (predicare)
dean (decanus)	hulk (δλκας)	prey (præda)
die (dadus)	inch (uncia)	priest (presbyter)
desk }	jaw (gabata)	print (premere)
dish } (discus)	jest (gestum)	prize }
dose (δοσις)	jet (jactum)	price } (pretium)
doubt (dubitare)	join (jungo)	proof (probare)
dress (dirigere)	joy (gaudium)	push (pulsare)
due (debitum)	juice (jus)	quire (chorus)
duke (dux)	lace (laqueus)	quite (quietus)
face (facies)	lease (laxare)	rage }
fail (fallo)	liege (legius)	rave } (rabies)
fair (feria)	lounge (longus)	ray (radius)
faith (fides)	mace (massa)	rear (retro)
fan (vannus)	mail, armour }	rest (restare)
fay (fata)	mesh }	rill (rivulus)
feast (festus)	male (masculus)	river (riparius)
feat (factum)	mass (missa)	roll (rotulus)

round (rotundus)	space (spatium)	test (testis)
rule (regula)	spice (species)	toast (tostus)
safe (salvus)	spoil (spolium)	toll (telonium)
sage (sapiens)	spouse (sponsus)	tour } (tornare)
saint (sanctus)	sprain (exprimo)	turn } (tornare)
sauce (salsus)	spy (specio)	trace } (tractus)
scan (scandere)	squad, square (<i>ex-quadrare</i>)	trait } (tractus)
scent (sentire)	stage (<i>statio</i>)	treat (tractare)
scarce (<i>ex-scarptus</i>)	stain (stinguo)	try (terere)
scourge (corrigare)	strain (stringo)	tune (tonus)
seal (sigillum)	strange (extraneus)	vault (voluta)
search (circare)	strait (strictus)	vaunt (<i>vanitare</i>)
seat (sedes)	street (strata)	veal (vitulus)
short (curtus)	sue, suit (sequor)	veil (velum)
siege (assedium)	sure (securus)	vice (vitium)
sir (senior)	taint (tinctus)	view (videre)
sluice (exclusis)	task (taxare)	void (viduus)
soar (<i>exaurare</i>)	taste (<i>tazitare</i>)	voice (vox)
soil (solum)	taunt (temptare)	vouch (vocare)
sound (sonus)	tense (tempus)	vow (votum)
source (urgere)		waste (vastus)

The above list does not include a large number of monosyllables, the Latin origin of which is obvious, such as *cede* (*cedo*), *long* (*longus*), &c. Some of the less obvious etymologies are taken from Müller's admirable "Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Englischen Sprache."

Besides words like the above, which with many others have been distinctly imported from the classical languages into English, there are numerous instances in which a word or root is common to several of the Aryan languages, without having been borrowed by any one from another, all having received the word in common from some more primitive source. In tracing the variations which such words assume, a very remarkable relation between the consonants is found, which is commonly known as 'Grimm's Law.' The substance of the following statement of this law is taken from Max Müller (Lect. ii. 199, &c.) and Helfenstein (*Comp. Gr.*, p. 99).

If the same roots or the same words exist (1) in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, &c., (2) in Gothic or the Low German dialects,* and (3) in Old High German, then I. When the first class have an aspirate,† the second have the corresponding soft check (i.e., *flat* or *middle* mute), the third the corresponding hard check (i.e., *sharp* or *thin* mute). II. When the first class have a soft check (*flat* or *middle* mute), we find the corresponding hard check (*sharp* or *thin* mute) in the second class, and the corresponding aspirate in the third. III. When the

* Of which English is one.

† See §§ 18, 19.

first class have a hard consonant (*sharp* or *thin* mute), the second have the aspirate, and the third the soft check (*flat* or *middle* mute). In this third section of the rule, however, the law holds good for Old High German only as regards the *dental* series of mutes, the middle (or flat) guttural being generally replaced by *h*, and the middle (or flat) labial by *f*.*

The three branches of the law given above may be easily remembered in the following way :—Take a circular disc of cardboard, and mark on it three radii, inclined each to each at an angle of 120°. Mark these radii (1), (2), and (3), corresponding respectively to the three classes of languages above referred to—(1) denoting Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, &c. ; (2) denoting Gothic and Low German dialects (including English) ; and (3) denoting Old High German. Place the disc on a sheet of paper, and write *Aspirate* opposite the end of radius (1), *Middle* or *Flat* opposite the end of radius (2), and *Thin* or *Sharp* opposite the end of radius (3). The disc may be shifted, so that radius (1), instead of pointing to *Aspirate*, may point to the other two classes of mutes in succession. In each position of the disc, each radius will point to the class of mutes that may be expected to characterize any word that is common to all three classes of languages, provided that one radius points to the class of mutes which the word in question exhibits in that group of languages which that radius represents.

The following are a few instances of the application of this law :—

I.

	<i>Greek.</i>	<i>Latin.</i>	<i>Sanskrit.</i>	<i>English.</i> (<i>Ang. Sax.</i>)	<i>Gothic.</i>	<i>Old High German.</i>
1.	{ <i>χῆν</i> <i>χῆς</i> <i>χότρος</i>	{ (h)anser heri hortus	{ hansa hyas	{ goose gestrandaeg garden	{ gans gistra gards	{ kans kestar karto
2.	{ <i>θυγάτηρ</i> <i>θύρα</i> <i>θύρ</i> <i>θαλασσεῖν</i>	{ <i>fera</i> <i>medius</i>	{ <i>dhrish</i> <i>madhya</i>	{ daughter door deer dare <i>middle</i>	{ daughtar daur dius ga-daur- san	{ tohtar tor tior tarran <i>mitte</i>
3.	{ <i>φέρω</i> (<i>φράττω</i>) <i>φηγός</i> <i>φύω</i>	{ fero frater fagus fu-i	{ bhri bhratri <i>bhavāmi</i>	{ bear brother beech be (be om)	{ baira bróthar bōka	{ piru pruoder puocha pim

* The above is the law in its general form. It is subject to special modifications and exceptions, which will be found treated at length by the authors referred to.

II.

	<i>Greek.</i>	<i>Latin.</i>	<i>Sanskrit.</i>	<i>English.</i> (<i>Ang. Sax.</i>)	<i>Gothic.</i>	<i>Old High</i> <i>German.</i>
4.	{ γνῶμι	gnosco	jñā	know	kan	chan
	{ γένος	genus	jāti	kin	kuni	chuni
	{ γόνυ	genu	jānu	knee	kniu	chniu
	{ μέγας	mag-nus	mah-at	A.S. micel	mih-ils	mih-il
	{ ἐγώ	ego		A.S. ic	ik	ih (G. ich)
5.	{ ποδ-ός	ped-is		foot		vuoz
	{ δέκα	decem	ḍasan	ten	taihun	zehan
	{ δύο	duo		two	twai	zwei
6.	{ οδόντ-ος	dent-is	dant-as	tooth	tunth	
	{ κάναβις			help hemp	hilfa	hilfu hanaf

III.

7.	{ κεφαλή	caput	kapāla	A.S. heafod	haubith	houpit
	{ καρδιά	cord-is	hridaya	heart	hairto	(herza)
	{ (κός)	qui-s		A.S. hwa	hvas	
8.	{ τὸ	tu	twam	thou	thu	du
	{ τρεῖς	tres	trayas	three	threis	dri
	{ ἑτ-ερος	alter	ant-ara	other	anthar	andar
9.	{ πατήρ	pater	pitri	father	fadar	
	{ ὀπέρ	super	upari	over	ufar	ubar
	{ πλέος	ple-nus	pūrna	full	fulls	
		piscis		fish	fisks	
		pellis		fell		

GENERAL TABLE OF GRIMM'S LAW.

	I.			II.			III.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I. { Sanskrit	gh (h)	dh (h)	bh (h)	g	d	b	k	t	p
I. { Greek ...	χ	θ	φ	γ	δ	β	κ	τ	π
I. { Latin ...	h, f (g, v)	f (d, b)	f (b)	g	d	b	c, qu	t	p
II. Gothic, &c.	g	d	b	k	t	(p)	h, g, (f)	th, d	f, b
III. O.H.Ger.	k	t	p	ch	z	ph (f)	h, g, k	d	f, v

APPENDIX C.

A List* of some of the most important Anglo-Saxon Words which are still preserved in English.

Prepositions.

æft, æfter; after	betweox, betwux;	ofer; over
æt; at	betwixt	on; on, in
ær; ere	búfan; above	ongean; against
andlang; along	bútan, búton (<i>with-</i>	to; to, too
be, bi, big; by	<i>out</i>); but	under; under
beforan; before	feor; far from	up, uppan; up
begeondan; beyond	fram; from	út, útan; out
behindan; behind	for; for	wið (<i>against</i>); with,
beneoðan; beneath	in; in	(<i>as in</i> withstand,
betweonum, betwy-	neah; near	angry with, &c.)
nan; between	of; off, of	purh; through

Numerals.

án; one	nigon; nine	twentig; twenty
tweget; two, twain	tyn; ten	teóntig; one hun-
pri; three	endlif, endlufon;	dred
feower; four	eleven	enlufontig; one hun-
fif; five	twelf; twelve	dred and ten
six; six	preótyne; thirteen	twelftig; one hun-
seofon; seven	feówertyne; four-	dred and twenty
eahta; eight	teen, &c.	

Words relating to the Common Objects of Nature.

ác; oak, acorn (<i>i.e.</i>	bréar; briar	dæg; day
ac-corn)	bremel; bramble	dagian; to dawn
æpl, æpel; apple	brid (<i>the young of an</i>	deaw; dew
æsc; ash	<i>animal</i>); bird	denu (<i>valley</i>); den (<i>in</i>
æmette; emmet	bróc; brook	<i>names, as Tenterden</i>)
æspen; aspen	catt; cat	deór (<i>animal</i>); deer
bitel; beetle	clæg; clay	eá (<i>water</i>); island (<i>i.e.</i>
bár; boar	clam (<i>mud</i>); clammy	eáland)
beofer; beaver	clawu; claw	efen; evening
berige; berry	coc; cock	eoðre; earth
beo, bio; bee	comb (<i>valley</i>); in	fæðer; feather
birce; birch	<i>names, as Alcomb,</i>	fisc; fish
blæd (<i>branch</i>); blade	Compton	flæx; flax
bóc; beech	crán; crane	flód; flood

* This list does not pretend to be exhaustive; it is intended to show the kind of words that have maintained their ground in English, and the principal changes of form that have occurred in them.

frosc; frog	lencten (<i>the spring</i>);	spearwa; sparrow
fugel (<i>bird</i>); fowl	Lent	ster; stare, starling
gōs; goose	leocht; light	stān; stone
hæð; heath	mōna; moon	sumer; summer
hafoc; hawk	pabol; pebble	sunne (<i>fem.</i>); sun
hagol; hail	regen; rain	treow; tree
hran; reindeer or	sæ; sea	wæter; water
reindeer	snaw; snow	woruld; world
lawerc; laverock, lark		

Words relating to the House and Farm.

a-bacan; to bake	cluoge (<i>bell</i>); clock	geāt; gate
aer, æcer; acre	cnedan; to knead	grūt (<i>meal</i>); groats,
aeg (<i>pl. aegru</i>); egg,	oōc; cook	grouts
eyry	ood (<i>bag</i>); peasood	hærfest; harvest
æsce; ashes	cōte, cyte; cot, cot-	heorð; hearth
æmyrie; embers	tage	hlæfdige; lady
bæð; bath	cradol; cradle	hlaford; lord
bæst (<i>inner bark</i>);	craet; cart	hlāf; loaf
bast-mat	croc (<i>pot</i>); crock-ery	hōf (<i>house</i>); hovel
bere; barley	cú; cow	hróf; roof
bere-ern (<i>ern=place</i>);	cwearn (<i>mill</i>); quern	hund; hound
barn	delfan (<i>dig</i>); to delve	hūs; house
berewe; barrow	dic; dike, ditch	hwæte; wheat
besem; besom	ealo; ale	hweol; wheel
bin (<i>manger</i>); corn-	efese (<i>fem. sing.</i>);	lām (<i>mud</i>); loam
bin	caves	mæd; mead-ow
bolla; bowl	ele; oil	meole; milk
bolster; bolster	erian (<i>to plough</i>); to	ōfen; oven
bórd; board	ear	ortgeard (<i>yard for</i>
bræc; breeches	feauh (<i>little pig</i>); far-	worts or vegetables);
bread (<i>fragment</i>);	row	orchard
bread	feld; field	oxa; ox
būan (<i>to till</i>); boor	feorm (<i>food</i>); farm	riog; rick
buc; buck-et	floce; flock	sceap; sheep
bulluca (<i>calf</i>); bul-	fóda; food	spāca; spoke (<i>of a</i>
lock	furh; furrow	wheel)
byt; butt, bottle	fýr; fire	wægen; wagon, wain
camb; comb	gád; goad	wudu; wood
ceaf; chaff	gærs; grass	þec; thatch
cealf; calf	gát; goat	þerecan; to thresh
cese, cyse; cheese	gcard (<i>hedge</i>); yard,	
cetel; kettle	garden	

Words relating to Family and Kindred.

bróðor; brother	cyn; kin	móðor; mother
brýd; bride	dóhtor; daughter	nefa; nephew
child (<i>pl. cildra</i>); child	fæder; father	widuwa; widower
onāpa, onāfa (<i>boy</i>);	husbonda (<i>house-</i>	widuwe; widow
knave	holder); husband	wif (<i>woman</i>), wife

Words relating to the Parts of the Body and Natural Functions.

ancleow; ankle	eár; ear	hoh (<i>heel</i>); hough
bælg (<i>bag</i>); belly,	earm; arm	hricg (<i>back</i>); ridge
bulge, bellows	elboga; elbow	hrif (<i>bowels</i>); midriff
bán; bone	finger; finger	lim; limb
blæddre; bladder	flæsc; flesh	lippe; lip
blód; blood	fót; foot	maga (<i>stomach</i>); maw
bodig (<i>stature</i>); body	fýst; fist	mearg; marrow
bosm (<i>fold</i>); bosom	gesiht; sight	múð; mouth
bréð; breath	góma; gum	nægl; nail
bræw; brow	hær; hair	nasu; nose
breost; breast	hand; hand	sculder; shoulder
ceaca; cheek	heáfod; head	seón; to see
ceówan; to chew	heals (<i>neck</i>); halter	toð; tooth
cin; chin	hél; heel	tunge; tongue
cneow; knee	heorte; heart	tusc; tusk
cnucl; knuckle	hlist (<i>the sense of</i>	þeoh; thigh, thews
eáge; eye	<i>hearing</i>); listen	þrôte; throat

Words relating to Handicrafts, Trades, &c.

adesa; adze	bræs; brasses	cláð; cloth
anfilt; anvil	byogan; to buy	craeft (<i>strength</i>);
angel (<i>hook</i>); to angle	bytel; beetle	craft
ár; oar	ceáp (<i>bargain, sale</i>);	hamor; hammer
árew; arrow	cheap, chaffer,	mangian (<i>to traffic</i>);
bát; boat	chapman	monger
bil; bill	ceol (<i>small ship</i>); keel	

Words denoting Common Attributive Ideas.

báld; bold	dearo; dark	græg; grey
biter; bitter	deóp; deep	gréne; green
blæc; black	deóre; dear	heáh; high
blác (<i>pale</i>); bleach	eal; all	heard; hard
bleo; blue	eald; old	hefig; heavy
brád; broad	efen; even	hwit; white
brún; brown	fægr; fair	rud (<i>red</i>); ruddy,
calu (<i>bold</i>); callow	fætt; fat	ruddle, ruddock (<i>the</i>
ceald; cold	fúl; foul	<i>robin-redbreast</i>)
cól; cool	geolo; yellow	

Words referring to Common Actions and Feelings.

acan; to ache	berstan; to burst	ceorfan (<i>to cut</i>);
acsian; to ask	biddan; to bid	carve
béran; to bear	{ bitan; to bite	ceósan; to choose
agan; to own	{ bitt; bite, bit	clænan; to clean
áth; oath	blédan; to bleed	crawan; to crow
beatan; to beat	bliðe; blithe	creópan; to creep
beóðan; to bid	brecan; to break	cuman; to come

cunnan (*to know, to be able*); ken, con, oan, cunning, uncouth (= *unknown*)
 cwelian, cwellan; to kill, to quell
 dōd; deed
 dōn; to do
 drēdan; to dread
 drencan; to drench
 driucan; to drink
 dreogan (*to work*); drudge

dýnan; to dine
 dyppan; to dip
 etan; to eat
 feallan; to fall
 fēdan; to feed
 félan; to feel
 fleógan; to fly
 folgian or fyligean; to follow
 gifan; to give
 gitan; to get
 gleó; glee

grafan (*to dig*); engrave
 habban (há hæfst = *thou hast*); to have
 hæft (*holding*); haft
 heorcian; to hearken
 hýran; to hear
 leógan; to lie
 luf; love
 sorh; sorrow
 sprēcan; to speak

Miscellaneous Words.

ac, eac (*also*); eke
 adl (*pain, sickness*); addle
 æfre; ever
 semta (*leisure*), semtig; empty
 senlic; only
 ōr, *superl.* ærost; ere, early, erst
 æpel (*noble*); Atheling, Ethelred
 bōr; bier
 bōtan (*to curb*); bit
 bana (*killer*); bane, rata-bane
 beacen; beacon
 beacnian; to beckon
 bealu (*woe*); bale-ful
 bēd (*prayer*); bedesman
 behefe (*gain*); behoof
 besittan (*to sit round*); beset
 beorht (*brightness*); Albert, &c.
 biægu (*business*); busy
 { blæst; blast
 { blāwan; to blow
 bland (*mixture*); to blend
 bletsian (*from blōt, sacrifice*); to bless
 { blowian; to blow
 { blōstma; blossom

bōc; book
 bocsum (*flexible*); buxom
 boga (*arch*); bow
 borgian (*from borg-pledge*); to borrow
 bōt (*remedy, from betan, 'to make better'*); boot-less, to boot
 brōd; brood
 brycg; bridge, brig
 brydel; bridle
 bryne (*burning*); brimstone
 brysan; to bruise
 brytan (*to break*); brittle
 bugan; to bow
 būr (*cottage*); bower
 burh (*fort*); borough
 bylgian; to bellow
 byrðen; burthen
 { byre (*mound*); byre
 { byrian; to bury
 { carl (*male*); Charles
 { carl-fugel = male bird
 cearu; care
 cearcian; to creak
 ceorl; churl
 cirps (*curled*); crisp
 cleafan; to cleave
 clypian (*to speak, call*); y-clept
 cnāwan; to know

cnihht (*youth, attendant*); knight
 enoll; knoll
 enott; knot
 enucian; to knock
 eos, cyss; kiss
 crafian; to crave
 eric; crutch
 crincan (*to be weak*), cringe
 crump (*crooked*); crumple
 crydan; to crowd
 cuc, cwic (*alive*); quick
 cwealm (*destruction*)
 qualm
 { cwén (*female*);
 { queen, quean
 { cwénfugel; henbird
 cweðan (*to say*); quoth
 cyð (*acquaintance*); kith
 cyning; king
 dæfe (*fit*); deftly
 dēman (*to judge*), dōm; deem, doom
 deofan (*to sink*); dive
 dohtig; doughty
 dol (*foolish*); dolt
 dreórig (*bloody, sad*), dreary

drifan; to drive
 drigan (*to dry*); drug,
 drought
 dwīnan (*to pine*);
 dwindle
 dýne (*thunder*); din
 dysig (*foolish*); dizzy
 dýnt (*stroke*); dint
 eác (*also*); eke
 ealdor; elder, alder-
 man
 ecg; edge
 eorl (*man of valour*);
 earl
 eornest; earnest
 fadian (*to set in order*);
 fiddle-faddle
 faegen (*glad*); fain
 faran (*to go*); fare,
 ford
 fealo (*yellow*); fallow
 (ground), fallow-
 deer
 feoh (*cattle, money*),
 fee
 feohtan; to fight
 feor; far
 ficol; fickle
 fiðele; fiddle
 fleot (*bay*); North-
 fleet, &c.
 fleotan; to float
 folc; folk
 forhtian; to frighten
 fōster (*food*); foster
 { frēo; free
 { frēon (*to set free*,
 { love); friend
 fretan (*to gnaw*); to
 fret
 gaderian; to gather
 gál (*merry*), galan (*to*
sing); nightingale
 gamen (*pleasure*);
 game
 gán, gangan (*to go*);
 go, gang, gangway
 gár (*dart*); to gore
 gást; ghost, gas
 geáp (*wide*); gape,
 gap

gear; year
 geara; yore
 gearo (*ready*); yare
 geleafa; belief
 { geong; young
 { geogod; youth
 geála (*merry feast*);
 yule
 geond; yonder
 georn (*desirous*), geor-
 nian; to yearn
 geótan (*to pour*);
 gutter
 geréfa (*companion*);
 reeve, sheriff, land-
 grave
 glesian; to glisten
 glitian; to glitter
 gnagan; to gnaw
 { gód; good
 { god-spell; gospel,
 { (spell=message)
 gráþian (*to lay hold*
of); grab, grapple,
 grope
 grétan; to greet
 guma (*man*); bride-
 groom
 gyldan (*to pay*); to
 yield, guild
 gyrsta; yesterday
 hād (*state or con-*
dition); Godhead,
 child-hood, &c.
 hæcce; hook
 hæfen; haven
 hēlan; to heal
 hēst; (*hot*); hasty
 { halig; holy
 { halgian; to hallow
 hām; home, Cobham,
 &c.
 hās; hoarse
 healdan; to hold
 healf; half
 hebban; to heave
 hēlan (*to hide*); hell
 heonan; hence
 heord (*flock, trea-*
sure); herd, hoard

here (*army*); harbour
 (*i.e., refuge for an*
army, from beorh
or beorga), herring
(the army- or shoal-
fish
 hingrian; to hunger
 hiw (*form, fashion*);
 hue
 hládan (*to pump up*);
 ladle
 hlof (*band of robbers,*
booty); loot
 hóc; hook
 hóf; hoof
 holm (*river island*);
 Langholm, &c.
 hread; ready
 hraðe (*soon*); rathe,
 rather
 hreósan; to rush
 hreówan (*repent*); to
 rue
 hriddel (*sieve*); to
 riddle (*with holes*)
 { hwæt (*sharp*); to
 { whet
 { hwytel (*knife*); to
 whittle
 hwearf (*turning, ex-*
change, barter);
 wharf
 hweorfan (*to turn*);
 warp
 hwíl (*time*); while
 hýd (*skin*); hide
 hýð (*shore, port*);
 Greenhithe, &c.
 lær (*doctrine*); lore
 læran (*teach*); learn
 (*still vulgarly used*
in the sense of teach-
ing)
 hlaford; lord
 leas (*false, void*);
 leasing, -less (*as*
in harm-less)
 leod (*people*); lewd
 (*belonging to the*
common people)
 leof (*dear*); lief

lic (*corpse*); lich-gate
 licgan; to lie
 lin (*flax*); linen, lin-
 net (*the flax-finch*)
 lystan (*to please, to
 take pleasure, used
 impersonally*); 'him
 listed,' listless
 { mægen (*strength*);
 might and main
 magan (*be able*);
 may
 mæl (*time, portion*),
 mælum (*in parts*);
 piecemeal (*sostæp-
 mælum, step by step*)
 manig; many
 maðu (*worm*); moth
 max, masc (*noose*);
 mesh
 mengian (*to mix*);
 mingle, among
 merc; marsh
 metisan (*to feed*);
 mess, messmate,
 meat
 midde; mid, middle
 mód (*mind*); mood
 morþ (*death*); mur-
 ther
 morgen; morn, mor-
 row
 mót (*assembly, from
 métan to meet*);
 shire-moot
 mycg; midge
 nacod; naked
 næddre (*serpent*)
 adder (*an adder =
 a nadder*)
 næs or næsse; naze,
 -ness (*in Furness,
 &c.*)
 { neah (*comparat.*
 near); nigh
 { nearo; narrow
 neód; need
 neb (*break*); nib
 neaðan; be-neath
 niesan; to sneeze
 niht; night

niðer (*down*); nether
 ordæd (*or = free from,
 dæl = part, parti-
 zanship*); ordeal
 ost; east
 pic; pitch
 pinewinkle; peri-
 wrinkle
 pip; pipe
 pocca; pouch, pock-
 et
 prætig (*crafty*);
 pretty
 pylle; pillow
 ræcan; to reach
 rædan (*interpret*); to
 read
 ræp, rāp; rope
 reāc; (*smoke*); reek
 { reāfa (*robber*); reiver
 { reāfian; be-reave
 réc (*care*); reckless
 rein (*clean*); rinse
 ric (*dominion*); bish-
 op-ric
 rīp (*harvest*); ripe,
 reap
 ród (*cross*); rood
 sæd (*sated*); sad
 sæl (*good luck*); sæl-
 ig (*lucky*); sealy
 (*old Engl.*), silly
 (*i.e., blessed*)
 sār; sore, sorry,
 sorrow
 scacan; to shake
 scādu, sceado; shadow
 { scafan (*scrape*); to
 { shave
 { sceaft (*a scraped
 pole*); shaft
 scanca; shank
 scapan, sceapan (*a
 form, create*); ~~make~~
 (*From this com- the
 suffix scipe or scype
 = -ship*)
 soeacga (*a bush or
 bunch*); shaggy
 ic sceal (*I owe*); I
 shall

scéran; to shear,
 to share, short
 sceaðan (*to steal, in-
 jure*); scatheless
 sceāwian (*to look*);
 show
 sceoh (*perverse*);
 askew
 sceofan, scufan;
 shove, shuffle,
 scuffle
 sceorp (*clothing*); scarl
 scinan; to shine
 scip; ship, skipper
 scīr (*pure, clear*);
 sheer
 { scīr; shire
 { scīr-gerefa; sheriff
 scólu (*band*); shoal
 scrincan; to shrink
 scrúd (*garment*);
 shroud
 sealt; salt
 secg; sedge
 secgan; to say
 seld; seldom
 segel; sail
 sencan; to sink
 seóc; sick
 seolfer; silver
 slæp; sleep
 sleoge (*hammer*);
 sledge
 slóp (*frock, loose outer
 dress*); slop shop
 sluma; slumber
 sméru (*grease*); smear
 smīcan (*creep*); sneak
 sóð (*truth*); sooth-
 sayer
 spétan; to spit
 spéd (*prosperity*);
 speed
 spell (*tale*); gospel
 (*i.e., good-spell*)
 spīwan; to spew
 sprengan; to sprinkle
 stæf; staff
 stéger; stair
 stearc (*strong*); stark,
 starch

stelan; to steal
 stene; stench, stink
 steopan (to bereave);
 step-son (i.e., or-
 phan son) step-
 father (orphan's
 father)
 steorra; star
 sticce (portion); stick,
 steak
 stician; to stick, stitch
 stigan (to mount); stir-
 rup (i.e., stig-ráp
 = mounting rope)
 stóc (place); names
 in — stoke
 stów (place); to
 stow away, stew-
 ard (guardian of a
 mansion), names in
 — stow
 streowian; to strew
 sum (a certain —);
 some-body, &c.
 suð; south
 sweart (black); swar-
 thy
 swelgan; to swallow
 sweltan (to die); swel-
 ter
 sweord; sword
 swerian; to swear,
 answer (from and
 = against)
 swifan (to move quick-
 ly); swift
 syllan (to give); sell
 tæcan; to teach
 tæsan (to pluck);
 tease
 tendan (to kindle);
 tinder
 teoða (tenth); tithe
 tid (time); tide
 tilian (to prepare); till
 { treówian (to trust);
 to trow
 { treówd (confi-
 dence); truth, trust
 trog (tub, boat);
 trough

tumbian (to dance);
 tumble
 tún (enclosed ground);
 town
 twegen (two); twain,
 twin, between,
 twenty
 wacan, wacian; to
 wake, watch
 wæd (garment);
 widow's weeds
 wæpen; weapon
 { wær (cautious);
 ware, wary
 { warnian; to warn
 wescan; to wash
 , wana (lack); want
 { wanian; to wane
 wandrian; to wander
 wealcen (to roll, turn);
 walk
 weald (forest); Weald,
 Wold
 wealdan (to rule);
 wield, Bretwalda
 (governor of the
 Britons)
 wealh (foreign);
 Welsh, walnut
 weard (guard); ward
 wed (a pledge); to
 wed
 wel, bet, betst; well,
 better, best
 wendan (to turn);
 to wend one's way
 wén (hope), wénan
 (to expect); ween,
 overweening
 weorc; work
 weorpan (to throw, to
 change); to warp,
 mouldwarp (i.e.,
 mould-caster).
 weorð; worth
 weorðan (to become);
 'woe worth the
 day', i.e., 'woe be
 to the day'
 wesan (to be); was,
 &c.

wic (dwelling); Aln-
 wick, Greenwich,
 &c.
 wicca, wicce; witch,
 wicked
 wilcuma (a desired
 guest); welcome
 wiht (thing, creature);
 wight, whit
 win (war); Baldwin,
 Godwin
 { witan (to know); to
 wit, I wot
 { witnes (knowledge);
 witness
 wið (against) with-
 stand; to be angry
 with, &c.
 wolcen (cloud); wel-
 kin
 wóp (weeping);
 whoop
 worð (farm); Tam-
 worth, &c.
 wós (juice); ooze
 wræstan (to twist);
 wrest, wrestle
 wrécan (to afflict);
 wreck, wreak,
 wretch
 wrégan (to accuse);
 bewray
 wriða (band); wreath
 to wreathe, writhe
 wyn (joy); winsome
 wyrd (fate); weird
 wyrhta (workman);
 wright
 weor (bad) wyrse,
 wyrrest; worse,
 worst
 yfel (bad); evil, ill
 yrnan (to afflict);
 harm
 yrnian; to run
 { þencan; to think
 { þincan (to seem);
 methinks (i.e., seems
 to me), methought
 (i.e., seemed to me)
 þeof; thief

pirel (<i>hole</i>);	drill,	pweor (<i>oblique</i> ;	a-	pringan (<i>to press</i>);
nostril (<i>i.e.</i> , <i>nose-</i>		thwart		throng
hole		{ pyrr; dry		þræl (<i>slave</i>); thral-
		{ þyrst; thirst		dom

Specimens of Words that have remained unaltered, or nearly so.

bindan	gift	miss-ian	spring-an
box	gleam	mist	stand-an
brand	gold	nest	stepp-an
bring-an*	grim	norð	sting-an
brisl	grind-an	oft	storm
climb-an	grip-an	open	spurn-an (<i>to</i>
oorn	grów-an	oðer	<i>strike with</i>
orib	great	ram	<i>the heel</i>)
croft	heþp	rascal (<i>a lecn</i>	streám
crop	helm	<i>deer</i>)	sup-an
deaf	help-an	rest	swing-an
deafð	hem	sand	tell-an
dim	hilt or hylt	seám	timber
drag-an	horn	send-an	turf
dumb	hors	sett-an	twig
dust	hunt-ian	side	wan
east	idel	sing-an	web
elf	inn	sitt-an	west
elm	land	slinc-an	will-an
end-e	leaf	slip-an	wind
fell	lust	slit-an	winter
find-an	man	sot	wit
forð	melt-an	spend-an	word
full	mere (<i>lake</i>)	spill-an	þing [þorn

A List of the principal Latin Words from which Derivatives are formed in English.†

Acer (*sharp*), acidus (*sour*), acerbus (*bitter*); acrid, acerbity, acrimony, acid.

Acuo (*I sharpen*); acute, acumen.

Aedes (*house*); edifice, edify (*literally, to build up*).

Aequus (*level*); equal, equation, equator, adequate, equity, iniquity, equivocate, equinox.

Aestimo (*I value*); estimate, esteem, aim. Aestus (*tide*); estuary.

Aeternus, *i.e.*, aeviternus (*of endless duration*); eternity, eternal.

Aevum (*age*); coeval, primeval. Agger (*heap*); exaggerate.

Ager (*field*); agriculture, agrarian.

* The infinitive termination *an* is no longer used.

† In most cases only a few samples of the English derivatives are given.

- Ago (*I set in motion, drive, do*); agent, act, agile, agitate.
 Alacer (*brisk*); alacrity.
 Alius (*other*), alter (*other of two*); alien, alibi, alter, alternate.
 Alc (*I nourish*); alimony, aliment. Altus (*high, deep*); altitude, exalt.
 Ambitio (*going round, courting favour*); ambition, ambitious.
 Ambulo (*I walk*); amble, somnambulist (*i.e., sleep-walker*).
 Amo (*I love*), amicus (*friend*), amor (*love*); amour, amorous, amicable, amiable.
 Amoenus (*pleasant*); amenity. Amplus (*large*); ample, amplify.
 Ango (*I choke*), anxius, anxious, anxiety, anguish.
 Angulus (*corner, bend*); angle.
 Anima (*breath*), animus (*mind*); animate, animal, magnanimous, animosity.
 Annulus (*ring*); annular. Annus (*year*); annual, anniversary.
 Anus (*old woman*); anile. Aperio (*I open*); April, aperient, aperture.
 Apis (*bee*); apiary. Appello (*I call*); appellation, appellant, appeal.
 Aptus (*fitted*), apto (*I fit*); adapt, apt.
 Aqua (*water*); aqueous, aquatic, aqueduct.
 Arbitrator (*umpire, go-between*); arbitrate, arbitrary.
 Arbor (*tree*); arbour. Arca (*chest*); ark. Arcus (*bow*); arc, arch.
 Ardeo (*I burn*); ardent, ardour, arson. Arduus (*steep*); arduous.
 Arena (*sand*); arena, arenaceous. Argentum (*silver*); argent.
 Argilla (*clay*); argillaceous. Arguo (*I prove*); argue, argument.
 Aridus (*dry*); arid, aridity. Arma (*fittings, arms*); arms, arm, armour.
 Aro (*I plough*); arable, earing. Ars (*skill*); art, artist, artifice.
 Artus (*joint*), articulus (*little joint or fastening*); articulate, article.
 Asinus (*ass*); asinine. Asper (*rough*); asperity, exasperate.
 Audax (*bold*); audacious, audacity. Audio (*I hear*); audience, audible.
 Augeo (*I increase*); augment, auction, author, authority.
 Aurum (*gold*); auriferous.
 Auspex (*one who takes omens from birds*); auspicious, auspices.
 Auxilium (*help*); auxiliary.
 Avarus (*greedy*); avarice, avaricious. Avidus (*eager*); avidity.
 Avis (*bird*); aviary. Auris (*ear*); aurist, auricular.
 Barba (*beard*); barb, barbed, barber. Beatus (*blessed*); beatitude.
 Bellum (*war*); belligerent, rebel. Bene (*well*); beneficent, benediction.
 Benignus (*kind*); benign. Bestia (*beast*); beast, bestial.
 Bini (*two by two*) binary. Bis (*twice*); bissextile, bisect.
 Blandus (*coaxing*); bland. Brevis (*short*); brief, brevity.
 Caballus (*horse*); cavalry.
 Cado, *sup.* casum (*I fall*); cadence, ac-cident, oc-casion, casual.
 Caedo, caesum (*I cut*); suicide, regicide, incision, concise, cement (*i.e., caedimentum*).
 Calamitas; calamity. Calcitro (*I kick*); recalcitrant.
 Calculus (*pebble*); calculate. Calx; chalk, calcine.
 Callus (*hard skin*), callosus; callous. Campus (*plain*); camp, encamp.
 Candeo (*I burn or shine*), candidus (*white*); candid, incandescent, incendiary, candle, candour.
 Canis (*dog*); canine. Canna (*reed or tube*), canalis; canal, channel.
 Canto (*I sing*); chant, incantation.
 Capillus (*hair*); capillary. Carmen (*song*); charm.

- Capio** (*I take*), **captus** (*taken*); captive, capacity, accept, conception, recipient, anticipate.
Caput (*head*); cape, capital, captain, chapter, decapitate, precipitate.
Carbo (*coal*); carbon, arboniferous. **Carcer** (*prison*); incarcerate.
Caro, carnis (*flesh*); carnal, incarnate, charnel-house, carnival.
Carpo (*pluck*); carp. **Carus** (*dear*); charity.
Castigo (*restrain*); castigate, chastise. **Castus** (*pure*); chaste.
Casus (*falling*); case, casual. **Causa**; cause; excuse, accuse.
Caveo, cautum (*I take care*); caution.
Cavus (*hollow*); cave, cavity, excavate.
Cedo (*I go*); cede, precede, proceed, cession.
Celeber (*frequented*); celebrate, celebrity.
Celer (*quick*); celerity. **Celo** (*I hide*); conceal.
Censeo (*I judge*); censor, censure. **Centum** (*hundred*); cent, century.
Centrum; centre, concentrate, centrifugal.
Cerno, cretum (*I distinguish*); discern, concern, discreet, secret.
Certus (*resolved*); certain, certify. **Cesso** (*I loiter*); cease, cessation.
Charta (*paper*); chart, charter, cartoon.
Cingo (*I gird*); cincture, succinct, precincts.
Circum (*round*), **circus** (*a circle*); circle, circulate, circuit, circumference.
Cista (*box*); chest. **Cito** (*I rouse*); citation, excite.
Civis (*citizen*); civil, civic, city (*from civitas*).
Clamo (*I shout*), clamor; claim, exclaim, clamour.
Clarus (*bright*); clear, clarify. **Classis**; class, classic.
Claudo, clausum (*I shut*); close, enclose, exclude, preclude, include.
Clemens (*mild*); clemency, inclement.
Clino (*I bend*); incline, recline, declension.
Clivus (*sloping ground*); declivity. **Coelebs** (*bachelor*); celibacy.
Coelum (*heaven*); celestial. **Cogito** (*coagito—I think*); cogitate.
Cognosco (*I examine, know*); recognize, cognizant.
Colo, cultum (*I till*); culture, cultivate, colony.
Color; colour. **Columna**; column.
Comes (*companion*); concomitant, count.
Commodus (*convenient*); commodious, commodity, incommode.
Communis; common, community. **Contra** (*against*); counter.
Copia (*plenty*); copious. **Copulo** (*I join together*); copulative.
Coquo, coctum (*I boil*); cook, decoction.
Cor, cordis (*heart*); cordial, concord, record. **Corona**; crown, coronation.
Corpus (*body*); corps, corpse, incorporate, corporeal, corpulent.
Cras (*to-morrow*); procrastinate.
Credo (*I believe*); creed, credulous, incredible, credit. **Creo**; create.
Cresco, cretum (*I grow*); increase, accretion, crescent.
Crimen (*charge*); crime, criminal. **Crispus** (*curled*); crisp.
Crudus (*raw*), crudelis; cruel, crude. **Crusta**; crust.
Crux (*cross*); crusade, crucify, exorcise.
Cubo, cumbo (*I lie*); succumb, recumbent.
Cubitus (*a bend, elbow*); cubit. **Culpa** (*fault*); inculpate, culpable.
Culter; coultter. **Cumulus** (*heap*); accumulate.
Cupidus (*sager*); cupid, cupidity.
Cura (*care*); cure, curator, curious, procure, secure.
Curro, cursum (*I run*); concur, discursive, current, curricule, succour, course.

Curvus (*bent*); curve. Custodia (*guard*); custody.
 Damno; damn, condemn. Debeo, debitum (*I owe*); debt, debit.
 Debilis (*weak*); debility. Decem (*ten*); December, decimal, decimate.
 Decens (*becoming*), decor, decorus; decent, decorous.
 Densus; dense, condense.
 Dens, dentis (*tooth*); dentist, trident, indent.
 Desidero (*I long for*); desire, desiderate.
 Deus (*God*); deity, deify, deodand (*to be given to God*).
 Dexter (*right*); dexterous, dexterity.
 Dico, dictum (*I say*); contradict, predict, diction, dictate.
 Dies (*day*); diary, diurnal.
 Digitus (*finger*); digit, digital. Dirus; dire.
 Dignus (*worthy*); condign, dignity, dignify.
 Disco (*I learn*); disciple, discipline.
 Divido; divide, division. Divinus; divine, divination.
 Do, datum (*I give*); dative, add, addition, date.
 Doceo (*I teach*); docile, doctor, doctrine.
 Dolor (*grief*), doleo, (*I grieve*); dolorous, condole.
 Domo (*I tame*); indomitable. Dono (*I present*); donation, condone.
 Domus (*house*); domicile, domestic, dome.
 Dominus (*master*); dominate, dominant, domineer.
 Dormio (*I sleep*); dormant, dormitory, dormouse (?).
 Dubius (*doubtful*); doubt, dubious, indubitable.
 Duco, ductum (*I lead*), dux (*leader*); conduct, duke, adduce, seduce, educate.
 Duo (*two*); dual, duet, duel.
 Durus (*hard*), duro (*I harden*); endure, durable, indurate.
 Ebrius (*drunken*); ebriety, inebriate. Edo (*I eat*); edible, esculent.
 Ego (*I*); egotist. Emo (*I buy*); redeem, exempt.
 Eo, ivi, itum (*I go*); exit, initial, transit, perish.
 Equus (*horse*), eques (*horseman*); equine, equerry, equitation.
 Erro (*I wander*); err, error, erroneous, erratic, aberration.
 Esca (*food*); esculent. Examino (*I weigh*); examine.
 Exemplum; example, sample. Exerceo; exercise.
 Expedio (*I set free*); expedite, expedition.
 Experior (*I try*); experiment, expert, experience.
 Faber (*mechanic, engineer*); fabric, fabricate.
 Fabula (*little story*); fable, fabulous. Facetus (*clever*); facetious.
 Facies (*make or appearance*); face, facial, superficial.
 Facilis (*easy*); facile, facility, difficulty, faculty, facilitate.
 Facio (*I make, do*); fact, faction, affect, infect, defect, deficient, benefactor, manufactory, perfect.
 Fallo (*I deceive*); false, fail, fallible.
 Fama (*report*); fame, infamous. Familia; family, familiar.
 Fans (*speaking*), fatum (*what is spoken or decreed*); infant, fate, fatal.
 Fanum (*temple*); fane, profane, fanatic. Fastidium (*loathing*), fastidious.
 Fatuus (*tasteless, silly*); fatuous, infatuated. Faveo; favour.
 Febris; fever, febrifuge, febrile. Fecondus (*fertile*); fecundity.
 Felis (*cat*); feline. Felix (*happy*); felicity.
 Femina (*woman*); feminine, effeminate.

- Fendo** (*I strike*); defend, offend, offence, fence.
Fero (*I bear*); fertile, infer, defer, circumference; *2. vti.* latus; dilate, translate.
Ferox; ferocious, ferocity. **Ferrum** (*iron*); ferruginous.
Ferveo (*I boil*); fervent, fervid, effervesce.
Festus (*solemn, joyful*); festive, feast. **Fibra**; fibre.
Fides (*faith*), **fido** (*I trust*); fidelity, confide, perfidy, defy.
Figō, fixum (*I fasten*); fix, crucifix. **Filius** (*son*); filial, affiliate.
Findo, fissum (*I cleave*); fissure, fissile.
Fingo, fictum (*I shape*); fiction, figure, feign.
Finis (*end*); final, finite, finish, confine, define, infinitive.
Firmus; firm, confirm, affirm. **Fiscus** (*treasury*); fiscal, confiscate.
Flaccidus; flaccid. **Flagellum** (*scourge*); flagellation.
Flagitium (*disgrace*); flagitious. **Flagro** (*I burn*); flagrant, conflagration.
Flamma; flame, inflammation. **Flo, flatum** (*I blow*); inflate, flatulent.
Flecto (*I bend*); deflect, inflect, flexible, circumflex.
Fligo, flictum (*I strike*); afflict, conflict, profligate.
Flos, floris (*flower*); flora, florid, floral, effloresce.
Fluo, fluxum (*I flow*), **fluctus**, (*wave*); flux, fluxion, influence, superfluous, fluctuate, fluid.
Fodio, fossum (*I dig*); fosse, fossil.
Folium (*leaf*); foliage, folio, exfoliate, trefoil.
Fons; fount, font, fountain. **Forma**; form, reform, inform.
Formido (*fear*); formidable. **Fors, fortuna**; fortune, misfortune.
Fortis (*strong*); fort, fortify, fortitude, fortress.
Frango, fractum (*I break*); fragile, frail, infringe, infraction, refraction, refractory, fragment, fracture.
Frater (*brother*); fraternal, fratricide. **Fraus, fraudis**; fraud.
Frequens; frequent. **Frico** (*I rub*); friction.
Frigus (*cold*); frigid, refrigerate. **Frivulus**; frivolous.
Frons; front, affront, frontispiece. **Frugalis**; frugal.
Fruges, fructus (*fruit*), **fruor** (*I enjoy*); fruit, fructify, fruition.
Frustra (*in vain*); frustrate. **Fugio** (*I flee*); fugitive, refuge.
Fulgeo (*I lighten*); refulgent. **Fulmen** (*thunderbolt*); fulminate.
Fumus (*smoke*); fumigate, fume.
Fundo (*I pour*); found, foundry, refund, confound, confuse, refuse.
Fundus (*bottom*); found, foundation, fundamental, profound.
Fungor (*I discharge*); function, defunct. **Funus**; funeral.
Fur (*thief*); furtive. **Futilis**; futile.
Garrō (*I prattle*); garrulous.
Gelu (*ice*); gelid, congeal, jelly, gelatine. **Gemma**; gem.
Gens (*race*), **gigno** (*root gen-*), *I beget*; genus (*kind*); gentile, generate, generation, gender, degenerate, general, gentle, genteel.
Germen (*bud*); germinate.
Gero, gestum (*I bear*); gesture, suggest, belligerent, vice-gerent.
Glacies (*ice*); glass, glacial, glazier. **Glans** (*kernel*); gland, glandular.
Gleba (*clod*); glebe.
Globus (*ball*), **glomerō** (*I make into a ball*); globe, conglomerate.
Gloria; glory.
Gradus (*step*), **gradior, gressum** (*I walk*); grade, degrade, digression, congress, transgress, aggression.

Grandis (*large*); grand, aggrandize. Granum; grain.
 Gratis; grace, gratuitous, gratis. Gratus; grateful, gratitude.
 Gravis (*heavy*); grave, gravitation, grief.
 Grex (*flock*); gregarious, congregate. Gubernare (*I pilot*); govern.
 Habeo, habitum (*I have*); have, habit, prohibit.
 Habito (*dwell*); habitation, inhabit.
 Haereo (*I stick*); adhere, adhesion, hesitate.
 Haeres or heres (*heir*); inherit, hereditary.
 Halo (*I breathe*); exhale, inhale. Haurio, haustum (*I draw*); exhaust.
 Herba; herb, herbaceous. Hibernus (*wintry*); hibernate.
 Histrio (*actor*); histrionic. Homo (*man*), humanus; human, homicide.
 Honestus; honest. Honor; honour, honourable, honorary.
 Horreo (*I shudder*), horror, horridus; horror, horrid, horrify, abhor.
 Hortor; exhort. Hortus (*garden*); horticulture.
 Hospes (*guest*); hospitable, hospice, host. Hostis (*enemy*); hostile,
 Humeo (*I am wet*); humid, humour.
 Humus (*ground*); exhume, humble, humiliate.
 Ignis (*fire*); ignite, igneous. Ignoro; ignore, ignorant.
 Imago; image, imagine. Imbecillus (*weak*); imbecile. Imbuo; imbue.
 Impero (*I command*), imperium; empire, emperor, imperious, imperative.
 Index, indicio (*I point*); indicate, indicative.
 Inferus (*low, placed underneath*); inferior, infernal.
 Ingenium (*talent, disposition*); ingenious.
 Ingenuus (*native*); ingenuous, ingenuity. Insula (*island*); insular, insulate.
 Integer (*whole, sound*); integral, integrate, integrity.
 Intellego (*I perceive*); intelligent, intellect. Invito; invite.
 Ira (*anger*); ire, irate, irascible. Irrito (*I provoke*); irritate.
 Irrigo; irrigate. Iterum (*again*); reiterate.
 Iter, itineris (*journey*); itinerant.
 Jaceo (*I lie down*); adjacent.
 Jacio, jactum (*I throw*); eject, reject, object, adjective, conjecture, subject.
 Jocus; joke, jocular. Jubeo, jussum (*I order*); jussive.
 Judex; judge, judicious, adjudicate, prejudice.
 Jugum (*yoke*); conjugal, conjugate, subjugate.
 Jugulum (*collar bone*); jugular.
 Jungo, junctum; join, joint, juncture, conjunction, injunction.
 Juro (*I swear*); conjure, jury, perjury.
 Jus (*justice*), justus (*just*); just, unjust, injury, justify, jurisdiction.
 Juvenis (*young*); juvenile, junior. Labor; labour, laborious, laboratory.
 Labor, lapsus sum (*I slide*); lapse, elapse, collapse.
 Lac, lactis (*milk*); lacteal, lactic. Lacerare (*I mangle*); lacerate.
 Lacrima (*tear*); lacrimose. Lacus; lake.
 Laedo, laesum (*I dash or hurt*); lesion, elide, elision, collision.
 Lamentor; I lament. Languo, languidus; languid, languish.
 Lapis, lapidis (*stone*); lapidary, dilapidate. Largus; large.
 Lassus (*weary*); lassitude. Lateo (*I lie hid*); latent.
 Latus (*broad*); latitude. Latus, lateris (*side*); lateral, equilateral.
 Laus, laudis (*praise*); laud, laudation, laudable.
 Lavo (*I wash*); lavatory, lavation, lave. Laxus (*loose*); lax, relax.
 Lego (*I send or depute*); legate, allege, legacy.

- Lego, lectum** (*I gather, choose*); collect, select, elect, recollect, lecture, college, legion.
Lenis (smooth); lenity. **Lentus** (*flexible*); relent.
Levis (*light*), **levo** (*I lift*); levity, alleviate, relieve, elevate.
Lex, legis (*law*); legal, legitimate, legislate.
Liber (*free*); liberal, liberate, deliver. **Liber** (*book*); library, libel.
Libo (*I pour*); libation. **Libra** (*balance*); deliberate, libration.
Licet (*it is lawful*); licence, illicit. **Lignum** (*wood*); ligneous.
Ligo (*I tie*); ligament, religion, league, allegiance, oblige.
Limen (*threshold*); eliminate. **Limes, limitis** (*boundary*); limit.
Linea; line, lineal. **Lingua** (*tongue*); linguist, language.
Linqno, lictum (*I leave*); relinquish, relict, delinquent.
Liquor, liquidus; liquor, liquid, liquefy.
Litera; letter, literal, illiterate. **Lividus** (*dark blue*); livid.
Locus (*place*), **loco** (*I place*); locate, local, locomotion.
Longus; long, longitude, elongate.
Loquor, locutus, (*I speak*), **loquax**; elocution, loquacious, colloquy, eloquent. **Lucrum** (*gain*); lucrative, lucre.
Ludo, lusum (*I play*); elude, prelude, illude, illusion, ludicrous.
Lumen (*light*); luminous, illuminate. **Luna** (*moon*); lunar, lunatic.
Luo, lutum (*I wash*); dilute, ablution, diluvial.
Lustrum (*purification*); lustre, lustrous, lustration, illustrate.
Lux (*light*); lucid, elucidate.
Machina; machine. **Macula** (*spot*); immaculate.
Magister (*master*); magistrate, magisterial.
Magnus (*great*), **major** (*greater*); magnitude, majesty, majority, mayor.
Malus (*bad*); malice, malignant, maltreat, malady.
Mamma (*breast*); mamma, mammalia.
Mando (*commit, enjoin*); mandate, command, commend, remaud.
Maneo, mansum (*I remain*); mansion, remain, remnant, permanent, imminent.
Manus (*hand*); manual, manufactory, manuscript, maintain, manacle, emancipate, manumit. **Mare** (*sea*); marine, maritime, mariner.
Mars; martial. **Massa**; mass, massive.
Mater (*mother*); maternal, matricide, matron, matrix, matriculate, matrimony. **Materia** (*timber, stuff*); matter, material.
Maturus (*ripe*); mature, immature, premature.
Medeor (*I heal*), **medicina**; remedy, medicine, medical.
Medius (*middle*); mediator, mediocrity, immediate.
Mel (*honey*); mellifluous. **Melior** (*better*); ameliorate.
Membrum; member, membrane.
Memor (*mindful*), **memini** (*I remember*); remember, memory, memorial, memoir, commemorate, comment. **Mendax** (*lying*); mendacious.
Mendicus (*beggar*); mendicant, mendicity.
Mendum (*fault*); amend, mend, emendation.
Mens, mentis (*mind*); mental, vehement. **Mereo meritum** (*I deserve*); merit.
Mergo, mersum (*I plunge*); immerse, merge, emergency. **Merus**; mere.
Merx (*wares*); merchant, commerce, mercer, market.
Metior, mensus sum (*I measure*); immense, mensuration, measure.
Migro (*I change my abode*); migrate.

- Miles, militis** (*soldier*); military, militia.
Mille (*thousand*); mile, millenium, million.
Minister (*servant*); minister, ministry.
Minor (*less*), minuo (*I lessen*); diminish, minor, minority, minute.
Mirus (*wonderful*) miror (*I admire*); admire, miracle.
Misceo, mixtum, (*I mix*); miscellany, promiscuous.
Miser (*wretched*); miser, miserable, misery commiserate.
Mitigo; mitigate.
Mitto, missum (*I send*); emit, admit, permit, promise, mission, missile.
Modus (*measure*); mode, mood, model, moderate, modest, modulation.
Mola; mill-stone, meal, molar, immolate, emolument (*the miller's perquisite*). Mollis (*soft*); emollient, mollify, mollusk.
Moneo, monitum (*I warn*); admonish, monument, monster, monitor.
Mons, montis; mount, mountain, surmount, dismount, promontory.
Monstro (*I show*); demonstrate. Morbus (*disease*); morbid, morbid.
Mordeo, morsum (*I bite*); remorse, morsel.
Mors, mortis, (*death*); mortal, mortuary. Mos, moris (*custom*); moral.
Moveo, motum (*I move*), mobilis, momentum; move, motive, moment, mobility, emotion. Mula; mule.
Multus (*many*); multitude, multiform, multiple, multiply (plico, -plex).
Mundus (*world*); mundane.
Munio (*I fortify*); munition, ammunition, muniment.
Munus, muneris (*gift, share*); remunerate, immunity.
Murus (*wall*); mural, intramural.
Musa (*muse*); music, amuse, museum. Mutilus (*maimed*); mutilate.
Muto (*I change*); mutable, mutation, commute, transmute.
Narro; narrate, narrative. Nasus (*nose*); nasal.
Nascor, natus sum (*I am born*); nascent, natal, native, nation, cognate, nature, natural.
Navis (*ship*); naval, navigate, navy. Nauta (*sailor*); nautical, nautilus.
Necesse; necessary, necessitude, necessity.
Necto, nexum (*I tie*); connect, annex. Nefas (*wickedness*); nefarious.
Nego (*I deny*); negation, renegade. Negotium, (*business*); negotiate.
Nervus (*string*); nerve, enervate. Neuter (*not either*); neuter, neutral.
Niger (*black*); negro. Nihil (*nothing*); annihilate.
Noceo (*I hurt*); innocent, noxious, innocuous.
No-sco, notum (*I know*); no-men (*name*), no-bilis (*noble*); noun, name, nominate, nominal, noble, ignoble, ignominy, note, notation, notion, notice. Non (*not*); non-entity, non-age.
Norma (*rule*); normal, enormous. Novem (*nine*); November.
Novus (*new*); novel, innovate, renovate, novice.
Nox, noctis (*night*); nocturnal, equinox.
Nubo (*I marry*); nuptial, connubial. Nudus (*naked*); nude, denude.
Nullus (*none*); nullity, nullify, annul.
Numerus (*number*); numeral, enumerate.
Nuntio (*I announce*); nuncio, announce, renounce, renunciation.
Nutrio (*I nourish*); nutritious, nutriment. Nutrix, nurse.
Nympha; nymph. Oblivio (*from liv-idus*); oblivion.
Obliquus; oblique. Obscoenus; obscene. Obscurus (*dark*); obscure.
Oculo, occultum (*I hide*); occult.
Occupo (*I lay hold of*); occupy, occupation.

- Octo (*eight*); octave, octavo, October.
 Oculus (*eye, bud*); ocular, oculist, inoculate.
 Odium (*hatred*); odious, odium.
 Odor (*smell*), oleo (*I smell*); odour, odorous, redolence, olfactory.
 Officium (*duty, business*); office, officious. Oleum (*oil*); oleaginous.
 Omen; ominous, abominate.
 Omnis (*all*); omnipotent, omnibus (*for all*).
 Onus, oneris (*load*); onerous, exonerate. Opacus (*shaded*); opaque.
 Opinor (*I think*); opine, opinion. Optimus (*best*); optimist.
 Opto (*I desire*); option, adopt. Opus, operis (*work*); operate.
 Orbis (*circle*); orb, orbit, exorbitant.
 Ordo, ordinis (*order*); ordinate, ordain, ordinary.
 Orior, ortus sum (*I rise*); orient, origin, abortive.
 Oro (*I speak*); orator, oracle, adore, inexorable.
 Os, oris (*face*); oral. Osculor (*I kiss*); oscillate.
 Ovum (*egg*); oviparous, oval.
 Paciscor, pactus sum (*I make an agreement*); pact, compact.
 Pagina; page. Pagus (*village*); pagan, peasant.
 Pallium (*cloak*); pall, palliate.
 Pallor (*pale*ness); pallesco, (*I am pale*); pallor, pallid. Palma; palm.
 Palpo (*I stroke*); palpable, palpitate.
 Palus (*stake*); pale, palisade, impale.
 Pando, pansum and passum (*I spread*); expand, expanse, compass.
 Pango, pactum (*I fasten*); compact, impinge.
 Panis (*bread*); pantry. Par (*equal*); parity, peer, compare.
 Parco, parsum (*I spare*); parsimony. Pareo (*I appear*); apparent.
 Pario (*I bring forth*); parent, viviparous.
 Paro (*I prepare*); impair, repair, prepare, compare, comparative.
 Pars, partis (*part*); partition, impart, party, participle, parse, particular, bipartite. Pasco, pastum (*I feed*); pasture, repast, pastor. Passus (*stride, see pando*); pace.
 Pateo (*I lie open*); patent.
 Pater (*father*); paternal, patron, patrimony, patrician, patristic.
 Patria (*country*); patriot, expatriate.
 Patior, passus sum (*I suffer*); patient, passion, passive.
 Pauper (*poor*); pauper, pauperism. Pavio (*I ram tight*); pave, pavement.
 Pax, pacis (*peace*); pacific.
 Pecco (*I sin*); peccant, impeccable, peccadillo.
 Pectus, pectoris (*breast*); pectoral, expectorate.
 Peculium (*private property*); peculiar, speculation.
 Pecunia (*money*); pecuniary. Pellis (*skin*); peltry.
 Pello, pulsum (*I drive*); compel, repel, repulse, pulse, pulsation.
 Pendeo (*I hang*), pendo, pensum, (*I hang or weigh*); depend, expend, pension, pensive, recompense, pendulum, compensate, perpendicular, pensile. Pene (*almost*); peninsula.
 Penetro (*I pierce*); penetrate.
 Penuria (*want*); penury, penurious. Perdo (*I lose*); perdition.
 Persona (*mask*); person.
 Pes, pedis (*foot*); pedal, pedestrian, impede, expedite, biped.
 Pestis (*plague*); pest, pestilence.
 Peto, petitur (*ask, seek*); petition, compete, repeat, appetite.

- Pingo, pictum (*paint*); depict, picture, pigment, Picts.
 Pilo (*I steal*); pillage, compile. Piscis (*fish*); piscatory.
 Pius (*dutiful*); pious, piety, pity, expiate.
 Placeo (*I please*); placid, placable, complaisant, pleasant.
 Plango; com-plain, plaint. Planta; plant, plantation.
 Planus (*level*); plane, plain, explain.
 Plaudo (*I clap*); applaud, applause, plaudit, plausible.
 Plebs (*commonalty*); plebeian.
 Plecto, plexus (*I weave*); complex, perplex.
 Pleo (*I fill*), plenus (*full*); plenary, complete, replete.
 Plico (*I fold*); implicate, apply, application, comply, reply, supplicate,
 suppliant, duplicity, double, complex, pliable, surplice, accomplice.
 Floro (*I weep*); deplore, explore. Pluma; plume.
 Plumbum (*lead*); plumber, plummet.
 Plus, pluris (*more*); plural, surplus.
 Pœna (*fine*); penal, punitive, punish, repent, penance, penitent.
 Polio; polish, polite.
 Pondus, ponderis (*weight*); pound, ponderous, preponderate, ponder.
 Pono, positum (*I place*); impose, repose, deposit, compound, position,
 component. Pons (*bridge*); pontoon.
 Populus (*people*); popular, depopulate, public, publish.
 Porcus (*hog*); pork.
 Porta (*door*); portal, portico, porthole.
 Porto (*I carry*); export, portable, support. Portus; port.
 Possum (*I can*); possible, potent.
 Post (*after*); posterity. Postis; post. Postulo (*I demand*); postulate.
 Præda (*plunder*); predatory, depredation, prey.
 Prævus (*crooked*); depraved.
 Precor (*I pray*); deprecate, precarious (*depending on entreaty*).
 Prehendo (*I grasp*); apprehend, apprehension.
 Premo, pressum (*I press*); express.
 Primus (*first*); prime, primitive, primeval, primrose.
 Princeps (*prince*); principal, principle. Pristinus; pristine.
 Privo (*I deprive, make separate*); deprive, private, privacy, privy.
 Probo (*I approve, make good*); prove, probe, probation, probable, reprobate.
 Probus (*honest, good*); probity. Probrum (*a shameful act*); opprobrious.
 Promptus, from promo (*ready*); prompt, promptitude.
 Pronus; prone. Propago; propagate.
 Prope (*near*), proximus (*nearest*); propinquity, proximate, proximity.
 Proprius (*one's own*); proper, property, propriety, appropriate.
 Prurio (*I itch*); prurient. Pudor (*shame*), pudet; impudent.
 Puer (*boy*); puerile. Pugil (*boxer*); pugilist.
 Pugna (*fight*), pugno (*I fight*); pugnacious, impugn, repugnance.
 Pulmo (*lungs*); pulmonary. Pulpa; pulp.
 Pungo, punctum (*I prick*); pungent, puncture, punctuation, expunge,
 point, appoint. Puppis (*stern*); poop.
 Pupus, pupulus, pupillus (*a little boy*); puppet, pupil.
 Purgo (*I cleanse*); purge, purgatory.
 Purpura; purple. Purus; pure, purify.
 Puto (*I cut, calculate, think*); amputate, compute, count, repnte,
 depute, putative. Putris (*rotten*); putrid, putrefv.

- Quæro, quæsitum** (*I seek*); question, inquire, require, query, quest, exquisite, inquest. **Qualis** (*of which kind*); quality, qualify.
Quantus (*how great*); quantity.
Quatio, quassum (*cutio, cussum in compounds, I shake or strike*) quash, percussion, discuss.
Quatuor (*four*), **quartus** (*fourth*), **quadra** (*square*); quart, quarto, quarter, quadrature, quadrant, quadratic.
Queror (*I complain*); querulous. **Quies, quietis** (*rest*); quiet, acquiesce.
Quinque (*five*); quintessence. **Radius** (*rod, ray*); radius, radiate.
Radix, radicis (*root*); radish, radical, eradicate.
Rado, rasum (*I scrape*); erase, razor, abrade.
Ramus (*branch*); ramification.
Rapio, raptum (*I snatch*); rapid, rapture, rapine, rapacious, ravish, ravage, raven, ravenous. **Rarus** (*thin*); rare, rarefy.
Ratio (*reckoning, calculation, proportion*); reason, ratiocination, rational, ration. **Ratus** (*reckoned, fixed*); ratify, rate.
Bego, rectum (*I make straight*); regular, direct, erect, regent, regimen, regiment, rector, rectify.
Rex, regis (*king*; not the same root as the last); regal, regicide: **Regnum**; reign, regnant, interregnum.
Reperio (*I find*); repertory. **Repo** (*I creep*); reptile.
Res (*thing*); real, republic. **Rete** (*net*); retina, reticule.
Rideo, risum (*I laugh*); deride, risible, ridicule, ridiculous.
Rigeo (*I am stiff*); rigid, rigour.
Rigo (*I water*); irrigate, irriguous. **Ritus**; rite, ritual.
Rivus (*brook*), **rivalis** (*having the same brook in common*); river, rival, derive, arrive, rivulet.
Robur (*oak, strength*); robust, corroborate.
Rodo, rosum (*I gnaw*); corrode, corrosion.
Rogo (*I ask*); arrogate, derogate, rogation, prorogue. **Rosa**; rose.
Rota (*wheel*); rotate, rotary. **Rotundus**; round, rotund, rotundity.
Rudis (*untaught*); rude, erudite, rudiment. **Ruga** (*wrinkle*); corrugate.
Ruminare (*to chew the cud*); ruminare. **Rumor**; rumour.
Rumpo, ruptum (*I break*); rupture, abrupt, eruption, corrupt, bankrupt.
Ruo (*I rush*); ruin. **Russatus** (*died red*); russet.
Rus, ruris (*country*); rustic, rural. **Saccus**; sack.
Sacer (*sacred*), **sacerdos** (*priest*); sacred, sacrament, sacrifice, consecrate, sacerdotal, sacristan.
Sagax (*knowing*); sage, sagacious, presage.
Sal; salt, saline, salary (*properly an allowance for salt*).
Salio, saltum, in compounds, **sultum** (*I leap*); salient, assail, assault, salmon (*the leaping fish*), desultory, exult, insult, saltatory.
Salus, salutis (*safety*); salute, salutary.
Saluber; salubrious. **Salvus** (*safe*); salvation, salve, salvo, saviour.
Sancio, sanctum (*I consecrate*); sanction.
Sanctus (*holy*); saint, sanctify.
Sanguis, sanguinis (*blood*); sanguinary, sanguine, consanguinity.
Sano (*I make sound*); sanative, sanatory.

- Sanus** (*sound*); sane, sanity, sanitary.
Sapio (*I taste, am wise*), sapor (*taste*); savour, sapient, insipid.
Satelles (*attendant*); satellite.
Satis (*enough*), satur (*full*), satio (*I fill*); satiate, satiety, saturate, satisfy.
Scando (*I climb*); scan, scansion, ascend, descend, condescend.
Scindo, scissum (*I split*); rescind, abscissa, scissors.
Scintilla (*spark*); scintillate.
Scio (*I know*); science, prescience, omniscience, conscious.
Scribo, scriptum (*I write*); scribe, describe, scripture, postscript.
Scrupulus (*a little pebble*); scruple, scrupulous.
Scrutor (*I examine*); scrutiny, inscrutable.
Seco, sectum (*I cut*); sect, section, insect, dissect, segment, secant.
Seculum (*age, world*); secular.
Sedeo, sessum (*I sit*), sideo (*I set*), sedo (*I settle*); session, sedentary, sedulous, sediment, assess, possess, preside, subside, assiduous, consider, sedate.
Semi (*half*); semicircle. **Senex** (*old-man*); senile, senior, senate.
Sentio (*I feel, think*), sensus (*feeling*); sentient, scent, sentence, assent, sense, sensual, sensitive.
Sepelio (*I bury*), sepulcrum; sepulture, sepulchre.
Septem (*seven*); September, septennial.
Sequester (*an umpire*); sequester, sequestered.
Sequor, secutus (*I follow*), secundus (*following*); sequence, sequel, consequent, persecute, second.
Sero, sertum (*I set in a row*); insert, exert, desert, series, sermon.
Semen (*seed*); seminary, disseminate. **Serus**; sere.
Servus (*slave*), servio (*I serve*), servo (*I watch or preserve*); serf, servile, servitude, servant, servitor, preserve, observe, deserve.
Sidus (*star*); sidereal.
Signum; sign, signify, signal, resign, design, assignation.
Sileo (*I am silent*); silent, silence. **Silva** (*wood*); sylvan.
Similis (*like*); similar, assimilate, resemble, semblance, simulate.
Simul (*together*); simultaneous, assemble. **Sincerus**; sincere.
Singuli (*one by one*); single, singular. **Sinister**; sinister.
Sinus (*bay*); sine, sinuous.
Sisto (*I stop, I stand*); consist, insist, resist, assist.
Socius (*companion*); social, society. **Sol** (*sun*); solar, solstice.
Solemnis (*annual, festive*); solemn. **Solidus**; solid, solder.
Sollicito; solicit. **Solor**; con-sol, solace.
Solum (*ground*); soil. Connected perhaps with this, is the root *sul* or *sil* in *exsul* (*exile*); *consul* (*consul*); counsel. The root is really identical with *sed* or *sido* in *sedeo* and *sido*.
Solus (*alone*); solo, solitude.
Solvo, solutum (*I loosen*); solve, solution, dissolute.
Somnus (*sleep*); somnolent. **Sopor** (*sleep*); soporific.
Sonus; sound, sonorous, consonant. **Sordes** (*dirt*); sordid.
Spargo, sparsum (*I strew*); sparse, disperse.
Spatium; space, spacious, expatiate.
Specio, spectrum (*I look*), species (*appearance, kind*); special, specious, respect, aspect, spectator, speculate, despise, suspicion.

Sperno (*I reject*); spurn. Spero (*I hope*); despair, desperate.
 Spiro (*I breathe*), spiritus (*breath*); spirit, aspire, conspire.
 Splendo (*I shine*); splendour, splendid. Spolium; spoil, spoliation.
 Spondeo, sponsum (*I promise, bargain*); sponsor, spouse, respond,
 response, despond. Stagnus (*standing*); stagnant, stagnate.
 Stella (*star*); constellation, stellar. Sterilis; sterile.
 Sterno, stratum (*I throw down, spread*); prostrate, consternation.
 Stilla (*drop*); distil. Stilus; style. Stimulus (*goad*); stimulate.
 Stipendium (*pay*); stipend, stipendiary. Stirps (*root*); extirpate.
 Sto, statum (*I stand*); station, stature, stable, distant, obstacle, super-
 stition, armistice, substance, substantive.
 Statuo (*I set up*); statue, statute, constitute. Strenuus; strenuous.
 Stringo, strictum (*I tighten*); stringent, strain, constrain, strict, strait.
 Strangulo (*I strangle*).
 Struo, structum (*I pile up*); construct, destroy, destruction, construe.
 Studium (*zeal, eagerness*), studeo (*I am eager*); study, student.
 Stupeo (*I am amazed*); stupid.
 Suadeo, suasum (*I advise*); suasion, persuade.
 Sublimis (*raised aloft*); sublime, sublimate. Subtilis; subtle, subtle.
 Sudo (*I sweat*); exude.
 Sum (*I am*), root *es, ens* (*being*); entity, present, absent. Futurus (*about to be*); future. Summus (*highest*); sum, summit, consummate.
 Sumo, sumptum (*I take*); assume, consume, consumption.
 Super (*above*), superus (*upper*), supremus (*highest*); superior, supreme, supernal. Supinus (*on the back*); supine.
 Surgo, surrectum (*I rise*); surge, resurrection, insurrection.
 Tabula (*board*); table, tablet, tabular, tabulate.
 Taceo (*I am silent*); tacit, reticence, taciturn. Taedium (*disgust*); tedious.
 Tango, tactum (*I touch*); tact, contact, tangible, contagion, contiguous, attain, pertain, attach. Taxo; tax, taxation.
 Tardus (*slow*); retard, tardy.
 Tego, tectum (*I cover*); protect, integument, detect.
 Temere (*rashly*); temerity. Temno (*I despise*); condemn, contempt.
 Tempero (*I moderate*); temperate, temper.
 Templum; temple, contemplate.
 Tempus, temporis (*time*); temporal, temporary, tense.
 Tendo, tensum (*I stretch*); contend, intend, tense, intense, tension.
 Teneo, tentum (*I hold*); tenant, tenure, tenacious, tenour, retain, contain, content, retinue, tendril, continuous. Tener; tender.
 Tento or tempto (*I try*); tempt, attempt, temptation.
 Tenuis (*thin*); tenuity. Tepeo (*I am warm*); tepid.
 Terminus (*boundary*); term, terminate, exterminate, determine.
 Tero, tritum (*I rub*); trite, contrition, attrition, detriment.
 Terra (*earth*); terrestrial, terrene, inter, terrier, terrace.
 Terreo (*I frighten*); terrify, terrible, terror, deter.
 Testis (*witness*); testify, testimony, attest, detest, protest.
 Texo, textum (*I weave*); text, context, texture, textile.
 Timeo (*I fear*); timid. Torpeo (*I am numb*); torpid.
 Torqueo, tortum (*I twist*); torsion, contort, contortion, torture, torment.
 Torreo, tostum (*I parch*); torrid, toast. Totus (*whole*); total.
 Traho, tractum (*I draw*); tracto (*I handle*); treat, tract, contract, attract, tractable, tractate. Tranquillus; tranquil.

- Tremo (*I tremble*); tremour, tremulous, tremendous.
 Trepido (*I am in disorder*); trepidation.
 Tres, tria (*three*); trefoil, trident, trinity. Tribuo (*I assign*); tribute.
 Tribus; tribe, tribune. Triumphus; triumph.
 Trudo, trusum (*I thrust*); extrude, intrusion. Truncus; trunk, truncated.
 Tueor (*I protect*); tuition, tutor.
 Tumeo (*I swell*); tumid, tumour, tumult, contumely, tomb.
 Tuber (*a swelling*); protuberance, tubercle.
 Tundo, tusum (*I thump*); contusion.
 Turba (*mob*); turbulent, turbid, disturb. Turpis (*foul*); turpitude.
 Uber (*udder*), exuberant. Ubique (*everywhere*); ubiquity.
 Ulcus, ulceris (*sore*); ulcer, ulceration.
 Ultra (*beyond*), ulterior (*further*), ultimus (*furthest*); ulterior, ultimate, penult. Umbra (*shade*); umbrage, umbrageous, umbrella.
 Uncia (*a twelfth part*); ounce, inch, uncial, uncia.
 Unguo, unctum (*I anoint*); unguent, ointment, unction.
 Unda (*wave*), undare (*to rise in waves*); abound, redound, abundant, inundate.
 Unus (*one*); union, unity, unit, triune, uniform, universe, universal, unique.
 Urbs (*city*); urban, urbane, suburb.
 Urgeo (*I press*); urge, urgent. Urna; urn.
 Uro, ustum (*I burn*); combustion.
 Utor, usus sum (*I use*); use, usage, utility, usury, usurp.
 Uxor (*wife*); uxorious. Vacca (*cow*); vaccine, vaccination.
 Vaco (*I am unoccupied*); vacant, vacation, vacate, vacuum, evacuate.
 Vado, vasum (*I go*); invade, evade, invasion, wade.
 Vagor (*I wander*), vagus (*wandering*); vague, vagrant, vagabond, extravagant.
 Valeo (*I am strong*); valid, valour, value, avail, prevail, prevalent, valedictory.
 Vallis; vale, valley. Vallus (*stake*); circumvallation.
 Vanus (*empty*); vain, vanity. Varius; various, variegate.
 Vapor (*steam*); vapour, evaporate. Vas (*pot*); vessel, vascular.
 Vastus (*desolate*); vast, waste, devastate.
 Veho, vectum (*I carry*); convey, convex, inveigh, vehicle.
 Vello, vulsum (*I pluck*); convulse, revulsion.
 Velum (*covering*); veil, reveal, develop, envelop. Vena; vein.
 Vendo (*I sell*); vend, venal. Venenum (*poison*); venom.
 Veneror (*I worship*); venerate, revere.
 Venio, ventum (*I come*); convene, venture, convent, advent, prevent, revenue, convenient, covenant.
 Venter (*belly*); ventral, ventriloquist. Ventus (*wind*); ventilate.
 Verbum (*word*); verb, verbal, proverb.
 Vergo (*I incline*); verge, converge. Vermis (*worm*); vermicular, vermin.
 Verto, versum (*I turn*); verso (*I turn*); verse, version, convert, divorce, adverse, advertise, perverse, universe, vortex, vertical.
 Verus (*true*); verity, verify, aver.
 Vestis (*garment*); vest, vesture, vestry, invest.
 Vetus (*old*); inveterate, veteran.
 Vexo (*I harass*); vex, vexation. Vibro; vibrate.

Via (*road*); deviate, obviate, pervious, trivial.

Vicis (*change*); vicissitude, vicar, vicarious, viceroy.

Vicinus (*neighbour*); vicinity.

Video, visum (*I see*); visible, vision, provide, revise, visage, prudence, providence, survey, invidious, envy.

Vilis (*cheap*); vile, vilify. **Villa** (*country house*); villa, village.

Vinco, victum (*I conquer*); victor, vanquish, victim, convince, convict.

Vindex (*avenger*); vindicate, vindictive.

Vir (*man*), **virtus** (*manliness*); virtue, virago, triumvir, virile.

Vis (*force*); violent. **Viscus**; viscera, eviscerate.

Vita (*life*); vital. **Vitium** (*fault*); vice, vicious, vitiate.

Vitrum (*glass*); vitreous, vitrify, vitriol.

Vivo, victum (*I live*); revive, vivify, vivacious, victuals.

Voco (*I call*), **vox** (*voice*); voice, vocal, vocation, invoke, convoke, provoke, vowel, vocabulary. **Volo** (*I fly*); volatile.

Volo (*I will*); voluntary, volunteer, benevolent, volition.

Volupis (*delightful*); voluptuous.

Volvo, volutum (*I roll*); revolve, volume, revolution, voluble, volute.

Vomo; I vomit. **Voro** (*I devour*); voracious, devour, carnivorous.

Voveo, votum (*I vow*); vote, votive, votary, devote, devout.

Vulgus (*common people*); vulgar, divulge, vogue, vulgate.

Vulnus (*wound*); vulnerable.

List of the principal Greek Words Derivatives from which have been adopted into English.

- Ἄγγελος (*angelos, messenger*); angel, evangelist.
 Ἅγιος (*sacred*); hagiology. Ἀγωγή (*leading*); synagogue.
 Ἀγών (*struggle*); agony, antagonist. Ἀδάμας (*steel*); adamant, diamond.
 Ἀήρ (*air*); aeronaut, aerostation. Ἀθλόν (*contest*); athlete, athletic.
 Αἴθερ (*sky*); ether, ethereal. Αἷμα (*blood*); haemorrhage.
 Αἰνίγμα (*riddle*); enigma. Αἵρεσις (*choice*); heresy, heretic.
 Αἰσθήσις (*perception*); aesthetics. Ἀκαδημία; academy.
 Ἀκμή (*point*); acme. Ἀκολουθεῖν (*I follow*); acolyte or acolyth.
 Ἀκουῶ (*I hear*); acoustics. Ἀκροαῖμαι (*I listen*); acroamatic.
 Ἀκρὸς (*top*); acropolis. Ἄλλος (*other*); allopathy.
 Ἀλλήλοι (*one another*); parallel. Ἄλφα (*a*); alphabet.
 Ἀμφί (*on both sides*); amphibious, amphitheatre.
 Ἄνεμος (*wind*); anemometer. Ἄνθος (*flower*); anthology.
 Ἀνθράξ (*coal*); anthracite. Ἀνθρώπος (*man*); anthropology, philanthropy.
 Ἀξίωμα (*claim, demand*); axiom. Ἀρκτος (*bear*); arctic.
 Ἀριθμός (*number*); arithmetic. Ἀριστος (*best*); aristocracy.
 Ἄρμονια; harmony. Ἀρτηρία; artery.
 Ἀρχή (*rule, beginning*); monarch, archangel, architect.
 Ἀσκεῶ (*I exercise*); ascetic. Ἀστήρ (*star*); astral, asteroid, astronomy.
 Ἄω (*I breathe*); asthma, atmosphere. Ἄυτος (*self*); autograph, autocrat.
 Βάλλω (*I throw*), βολή, βλήμη; hyperbole, parable, emblem, symbol.
 Βαπτίζω, βαπτισμός; baptize. Βαρβάρος (*not Greek*); barbarous.
 Βάρος (*weight*); barometer. Βάσις (*treading, support*); base, basis.
 Βιβλίον (*book*); Bible, bibliopole. Βίος (*life*); biography, amphibious.
 Βλασφημία; blasphemy. Βομβυξ (*silk-worm*); bombazine.
 Βοτάνη (*grass*); botany. Βρογχίτις (*windpipe*); bronchitis.
 Γῆ (*earth*); apogee, geography, geology. Γάλα (*milk*); galaxy.
 Γάμος (*marriage*); bigamy. Γαστήρ (*belly*); gastric, gastronomy.
 Γένος (*race*); genealogy. Γίγας; giant, gigantic.
 Γλῶσσα (*tongue*); gloss, glossary. Γλυφῶ (*carve*); hieroglyphic.
 Γνωμῶν (*pointer*); gnomon, physiognomy.
 Γράφω (*I write*); grammar, telegraph, graphic, paragraph.
 Γυμναζέω (*I exercise*); gymnastic. Γυνή (*woman*); misogynous.
 Δακτύλος (*finger*); dactyl. Δαίμων (*divinity*); demon.
 Δείγμα (*pointing*); paradigm. Δεκά (*ten*); decalogue.
 Δένδρον (*tree*); dendrology. Δημός (*people*); democracy.
 Διαίτα (*way of living*); diet. Διδάσκω (*I teach*); didactic.
 Διπλωμα (*anything folded*); diploma. Δόγμα (*opinion*); dogma, dogmatic.
 Δοξα (*opinion, glory*); orthodox, doxology.
 Δράω (*I act*); drastic, drama. Δρομὸς (*running*); hippodrome.
 Δυναμὶς (*power*); dynamics, dynasty. Ἑδρά (*seat*); cathedral.
 Ἔθνος (*race*); ethnic, heathen, ethnology. Ἔθος (*custom*); ethics.
 Εἶδος (*form*); kaleidoscope, cycloid, &c.
 Εἰδῶλον (*image*); idol, idolatry. Εἰκὼν (*image*); iconoclast.
 Εἰσωνεία (*dissimulation*); irony. Ἐλαστικός (*that may be driven*); elastic.
 Ἐλεημοσύνη (*pity*); eleemosynary. Ἑλλην (*Greek*); Hellenic.
 Ἐν (*one*); hyphen. Ἐνδόν (*within*); endogenous.
 Ἐντερὰ (*entrails*); dysentery. Ἑξ (*six*); hexagon.

- Ἔξω (*outside*); exoteric. Ἑπτα (*seven*); heptarchy.
 Ἔργον (*work*); energy, metallurgy.
 Ἐρημος (*solitary*); eremite, hermit.
 Ἑτερος (*other*); heterodox, heterogeneous. Ἐτυμος (*true*); etymology.
 Εὖ (*well*); eulogy, euphony. Ἐχω (*I hold*); epoch.
 Ζώνη (*girdle*); zone. Ζῶον, ζῷδιον (*animal*); zoology, zoophyte, zodiac.
 Ἡγήσις (*leading*); exegesis. Ἡλεκτρον (*amber*); electricity.
 Ἡλιος (*sun*); heliacal, heliotrope. Ἡμερα (*day*); ephemeral.
 Ἡμι (*half*); hemisphere. Ἡρως; hero.
 Ηχη, ηχώ (*sound*); echo, catechize.
 Θεαομαι (*I behold*); theatre, theory, theorem.
 Θαυμα (*wonder*); thaumatrope. Θεος (*God*); theology, theism, enthusiast.
 Θερμος (*heat*); thermometer, isothermal.
 Θεραπευω (*I heal*); therapeutics.
 Θέσις, θέμα (*placing*); anathema, antithesis, epithet, theme.
 Θηκη (*box*); hypothecate, apothecary. Θυμος (*mind*); enthymeme.
 Ἴδεα (*form*); idea.
 Ἰδιος (*peculiar*); ιδιωτης, ιδίωμα; idiom, idiot, idiosyncrasy.
 Ἱερος (*sacred*); hierarch, hieroglyphic. Ἰαπος (*cheerful*); hilarity.
 Ἴππος (*horse*); Philip, hippopotamus.
 Ἴσος (*equal*); isomorphous, isochronous, isosceles (σκελος = leg).
 Ἰστορια (*investigation*); history, story. Ιχθυς (*fish*); ichthyology.
 Καλεω (*I call*); εκκλησια; ecclesiastic.
 Καλος (*beautiful*); καλλος (*beauty*); calligraphy, calotype, calisthenic.
 Καλυπτω (*I hide*); apocalypse. Καθαρος (*pure*); cathartic.
 Κακος (*bad*); cacophonous. Κανων (*rule*); canon, canonical.
 Καυστικός (*burning*); caustic. Κεντρον (*point*); centre.
 Κλίμα (*slope*); climate. Κλιμαξ (*ladder*); climax, climacteric.
 Κλινω (*I bend*); incline, enclitic. Κοινος (*common*); epicene.
 Κογχη (*cockle*); conchology.
 Κοςμος (*world*); cosmical, microcosm. Κομητης (*long-haired*); comet.
 Κρανιον (*skull*); cranium. Κρατος (*strength*); autocrat, democrat.
 Κρινω (*I judge*); κρισις, κριτικός; critic, crisis, hypocrisy.
 Κρυσταλλος (*ice*); crystal. Κρυπτω (*I hide*); apocrypha, crypt.
 Κυκλος (*circle*); cycle, cycloid, cyclopædia.
 Κυλινδρος (*roller*); cylinder. Κυβος; cube. Κυων (*dog*); cynic.
 Κυριακος (*belonging to the Lord*); church. Κωμος (*festivity*); encomium.
 Κωνος; cone. Λεγω (*say, choose*); eclectic.
 Λεξις (*speech*); lexicon, dialect. Λαμβανω (*I take*); epilepsy, syllable.
 Λειπω (*I leave*); ellipse, eclipse. Λειχην; lichen.
 Λειτος (*belonging to the people*); liturgy.
 Λιθος (*stone*); lithography, lithic.
 Λογος (*speech, reason*); logic, dialogue, syllogism.
 Λυρα; lyre, lyric. Λυω (*loosen*); paralysis. Μαγος; Magian, magio.
 Μακρος (*long*); macrocosm. Μαθημα (*learning*); mathematics.
 Μαρτυς (*witness*); martyr. Μελας (*black*); melancholy.
 Μελος (*tune*); melody. Μεταλλον; metal.
 Μετρον (*measure*); meter, barometer. Μητηρ (*mother*); metropolis.
 Μηχανη (*contrivance*); mechanics. Μιανω (*I pollute*); miasma.
 Μικρος (*small*); microscope. Μιμος (*imitator*); mimic.
 Μισος (*hatred*); misanthrope. Μνημων (*remembering*); mnemonic.

- Μονος** (*only*); monarch, monogamy, monotheism. **Μοναχος**; monk.
Μορφη (*form*); amorphous. **Μυστηρια**; mystery.
Ναυς (*ship*); nautical, nausea (sea-sickness).
Ναρκω (*I benumb*); narcotic. **Νεκρος** (*dead*); necropolis, necromancy.
Νεος (*new*); neology, neophyte. **Νευρον** (*string, nerve*); neuralgia.
Νησος (*island*); Polynesia.
Νομος (*law*); antinomian, astronomy, gastronomy.
Νοσος (*disease*); nosology. **Οβελισκος**; obelisk.
***Οδος** (*way*); exodus, method, period. **Οικος** (*house*); economy.
Οικησις (*dwelling*); **οικω** (*I inhabit*); diocese, oecumenical.
***Ολος** (*whole*); catholic, holocaust. ***Ομοιος** (*like*); homoeopathy.
***Ομος** (*same*); homogeneous.
Ονομα, ονυμα (*name*); synonymous, patronymic.
Οξυς (*sharp*); oxygen, paroxysm.
Οπτικος (*belonging to sight*); optics, synopsis. ***Οραω** (*I see*); panorama.
Οργανον (*instrument*); organ. **Ορθος** (*straight*); orthodox, orthography.
***Οριζω** (*I define*); horizon, aorist. **Οπις** (*bird*); ornithology.
Ορφανος; orphan. **Ορχηστρα** (*dancing-place*); orchestra.
Οστειον (*bone*); osteology. **Οφις** (*serpent*); ophicleide.
Οφθαλμος (*eye*); ophthalmia. **Παλαιος** (*ancient*); palaeography.
Παν (*all*); pantheism, pantomime. **Παν** (*Pan*); panic.
Παθος (*suffering, affection*); pathos, sympathy, pathetic.
Παις (*boy*); paedagogue. **Πανηγυρις** (*assembly*); panegyric.
Παιδεια (*instruction*); cyclopaedia. **Πατεω** (*I walk*); peripatetic.
Παυσις (*stopping*); pause. **Πειρα** (*trial*); empirical.
Πεντε (*five*); pentagon. **Πεντηκοστος** (*fiftieth*); pentecost.
Πεταλον (*leaf*); petal. **Πετρα** (*rock*); petrify, Peter.
Πεπω (*digest*); dyspeptic.
Πλασσω (*I mould, daub*), **πλαστικος**; plastic, plaster.
Πλανητης (*wandering*); planet. **Πλησσω** (*strike*); apoplexy.
Ποιω (*I make*); poet. **Πολεμος** (*war*); polemic.
Πολος (*bow, pole*); pole, polar.
Πολις (*city*); polity, policy, metropolis.
Πολυς (*many*); polygon, polygamy, polytheism.
Πομπη (*procession*); pomp, pompous. **Πους** (*foot*); antipodes, tripod.
Πρασσω (*I do*); practice, pragmatical.
Πρεσβυτερος (*elder*); presbyter, prester, priest.
Πρισμα (*something saucy*); prism. **Πρωτος** (*first*); prototype.
Πτωμα (*fall*); symptom. **Πυρ** (*fire*); pyrotechnics, empyrean.
Πωλεω (*I sell*); monopoly.
***Ρεω** (*I flow*), **ρευμα**; catarrh, rheum, rheumatic.
***Ρηγνυμι** (*I break*); cataract. ***Ρητωρ** (*orator*); rhetoric.
***Ρις** (*nose*); rhinoceros. ***Ρυθμος** (*measured motion*); rhythm.
Σαρξ (*flesh*); sarcophagus. **Σαρκαζω** (*I tear the flesh*); sarcastic.
Σβεγγυμι (*I extinguish*); asbestos. **Σιφων** (*tube*); siphon.
Σιτος (*food*); parasite. **Σκανδαλον** (*stumbling-block*); scandal.
Σκηνη (*tent, stage*); scene. **Σκηπτρον** (*staff*); sceptre.
Σκοπεω (*I look*), **σκοπος**; episcopal, bishop, scope, telescope, microscope.
Σπaw (*I draw*); spasm. **Σπερμα** (*seed*), **σπορα**; spermatie, sporadic.
Σπειρα (*coil*); spire, spiral.
Στασις (*standing*); apostasy, ecstasy, system.
Στελλω (*I despatch*); epistle, apostle. **Στενος** (*narrow*); stenography.

- Στερεος** (*solid*); stereoscope, stereotype.
Στίγμα (*brand*); stigma. **Στίχος** (*line*); distich, acrostic.
Στρατος (*army*); strategy. **Στροφή** (*turning*); catastrophe, apostrophe.
Συκος (*fig*); sycophant. **Σφαίρα** (*ball*); sphere.
Σφυζω (*I throb*); asphyxia. **Σχῆμα** (*form, make*); scheme.
Σχιζω (*I divide*); schism. **Σχολή** (*leisure*); school, scholar.
Ταφος (*tomb*); epitaph. **Ταξίς** (*arrangement*); syntax.
Τόνος (*stretching, pitch*); tone, tonic, monotony.
Τομή (*cutting*); atom, epitome, entomology.
Τευχος (*implement, book*); pentateuch.
Τηλε (*far off*); telescope, telegraph.
Τόπος (*place*); topography, topic. **Τρόπος** (*turning*); tropic, trope.
Τυπος (*shape*); type. **Τυραννος**; tyrant.
Ίγρος (*moist*); hygrometer.
Ίδρω (*water*); dropsy, hydrate, hydrostatics, hydrogen, hydrophobia.
Ύμνος; hymn, anthem. **Ίπνος** (*sleep*); hypnotic.
Ίστέρος (*womb*); hysteria, hysterical.
Φαγω (*I eat*); sarcophagus.
Φαίνω (*I show*); phenomenon, phantom, phase.
Φαρμακον (*drug*); pharmacy.
Φερω (*I bear*); phosphorus, metaphor.
Φημι (*I say*) emphasis, prophecy. **Φθογγή** (*voice, vowel*); diphthong
Φθισίς (*wasting*); phthisic. **Φίλος** (*fond of*); philosophy, Philip.
Φλεβίς (*vein*); phlebotomy.
Φλεγμα (*inflammation, slimy humour*); phlegm.
Φόβος (*fear*); hydrophobia. **Φράγμα** (*fence*); diaphragm.
Φρασις (*saying*); phrase. **Φρήν** (*mind*); phrenology.
Φυσίς (*nature*); physica, physiology. **Φυτόν** (*plant*); zoophyte.
Φωνή (*voice*); phonetic, phonography. **Φως** (*light*); photography.
Χαος (*empty space*); chaos. **Χαρακτήρ** (*something engraved*); character.
Χαρίς (*thanks*); eucharist. **Χεῖρ** (*hand*); chirography, chiromancy.
Χίλιοι (*thousand*); kilogramme.
Χιμαιρα (*a fabulous monster*); chimerical. **Χολή** (*bile*); melancholy.
Χονδρος (*cartilage of the breast*); hypochondriac.
Χορδή (*string*); chord. **Χορος** (*dance*); chorus, choir.
Χρονος (*time*); chronology. **Χρίω** (*I anoint*); Christ, Christian.
Χρώμα (*colour*); achromatic. **Χυμος, χυλος** (*juice*); chyme, chyle.
Χωρος (*place*); chorography. **Ψαλλω** (*I play the lyre*); psalm.
Ψευδος (*falsehood*); pseudonym. **Ψυχή** (*soul*); psychology.
Ωδή (*song*); ode, monody, parody. **ὄν, οντος** (*being*); ontology.
ὥρα (*hour*); horology, horoscope. **ὄσμος** (*thrusting*); endosmose.

The above list does not include a large number of scientific terms employed in botany, medicine, zoology, &c.

The following table of the Greek alphabet is inserted for the use of those who are unacquainted with the Greek character:—

Α, α = a. Β, β = b. Γ, γ = g. Δ, δ = d. Ε, ε = ē. Ζ, ζ = z.
 Η, η = ē. Θ, θ = th. Ι, ι = i. Κ, κ = k or c. Λ, λ = l.
 Μ, μ = m. Ν, ν = n. Ξ, ξ = x. Ο, ο = ō. Π, π = p. Ρ, ρ = r.
 Σ, σ = s. Τ, τ = t. Υ, υ = u. Φ, φ = ph. Χ, χ = ch.
 Ψ, ψ = ps. Ω, ω = ō.

Miscellaneous Words adopted from Foreign Languages.

French.—Bean, belle, bon-mot, bouquet, congé, depot, éclat, ennui, envelope, foible, naïve, environs, etiquette, penchant, picquet, soirée, toilette, trousseau, &c.

Italian.—Akimbo, alarm (all' arme), alert (all' erta, *from Lat. erectus*), ambassador (*ultimately from the Gothic andbahta, 'servant'*), avast (*It. basta*), bass (*Lat. bassus, 'fat, squat'*), bassoon, baluster (*vulgarly banister*), balustrade, bandit (*root 'ban'*), bravo, brigade, brigand, brigantine, brocade, bronze, burlesque, bust, cameo, cannon (*'a great tube,' from Lat. canna*), canto, canteen, cape (*from caput*), caper (*from Lat. caper*), captain, caravel, caricature (*'an exaggeration,' from caricare, 'to load'*), cartel, cartoon (*Lat. carta; cartone = large or thick paper, pasteboard*), charlatan, citadel, companion (*'a comrade,' one who shares your bread, from con and panis*), concert, concerted (*probably from concertare*), conversazione, coeset (*It. casicio, 'a lamb brought up by hand in the house'*), cupola, ditto, dilettante, domino, dram, farrago (*mixed food, from 'far'*), folio, fresco, gabion, gala, gallant, garnet, gazette, granite, gondola, grate, grotto, harlequin, improvisatore, incognito, influenza, inveigle, lava, lupine, macaroni, manifesto, madrigal, mezzotint, motto, opera, paladin, pantaloen, piazza, palette, parapet (*from petto, 'the breast'*), parasol, pigeon (piccione), pilgrim (pelegrino, *from peregrinus*), pistol, policy (*of insurance, &c.*), polizza, *a corruption of polyptychum, 'a memorandum book of many leaves'*), porcupine (porcospino), portico, proviso, regatta, scaramouch, sketch, soprano, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, terra-cotta, torso, umbrella, virtue, virtuoso, vista, volcano.

Spanish.—Alligator (el lagarto), armada, barricade, battledore (batador), caparison, capon, cargo, caracole (caracol, *'a winding staircase'*), castanets, chocolate, cigar, clarion, clarinet, cochineal, cork (corcho, *from cortex*), creole, desperado, discard, dismay (desmayar, *'to faint'*), don, duenna, embargo, embarrass, filigree, filibuster, flotilla, grandee, jade (ijada, *'the flanks'*), jadear, *'to pant'*), javelin (*a spear, from jabali 'wild boar'*), jennet, lawn (lona, *transparent texture*), mulatto, negro, pamphlet (*perhaps from papelete, 'a note'*), pawn (peone, *'a labourer'*), pedestral, pillion, pint (pinta, *'a mark'*), platinum, puntilio, renegade (*corrupted into runagate*), savannah, sherry (Xeres), tornado, verandah.

Portuguese.—Caste, cocoa, commodore (commendador), fetish, mandarin (mandar, *'to have authority'*), marmalade (marmelo *'quince'*), palaver (*derived from parabola 'parable'*), porcelain.

Dutch.—Boom, sprit, reef, schooner, skate, aloop, stiver, taffrail, yacht (jaghten, *'to chase'*).

Arabic.—Admiral (*properly ammiral*), alchemy, alcohol (al-kohl, 'the fine powder of antimony'), alembic, algebra (al-gebr, 'union or combination'), alkali, almanac, amber, amulet, arrack (araq, 'sweat'), assassin (*eater of hashish*), azimuth, cadi, caliph, camphor, carat, cipher, coffee, cotton, dragoman, elixir, emir, fakir, gazelle, giraffe, harem, hazard, jar, lute, magazine, mameluke, minaret, monsoon, moslem, mosque, mufti, mummy, nadir, naphtha, salaam, simoom, sirocco, sofa, sugar, sultan, syrup, talisman, tamarind, vizier, zenith, zero.

Hebrew.—Abbot, amen, behemoth, cabal, cherub, ephod, hallelujah, hosanna, jubilee, leviathan, manna, sabbath, seraph, shibboleth.

Persian.—Azure, balcony, bashaw or pasha, bazaar, caravan, checkmate (shahmat, 'king dead'), chess, dervish, hookah, jackal, lilac, musk, orange, paradise, scimitar, shawl, sherbet, taffeta, turban.

Hindustani.—Buggy, bungalow, calico, chintz, chutnee, coolie, cowrie, curry, jungle, lac, mulligatawny, nabob, pagoda, palanquin, pariah, punch, pundit, rajah, rupee, sepoy, suttee, toddy.

Chinese.—Bohea, caddy, congou, gong, hyson, junk, nankeen, pekoe, tea.

Malay.—Amuck, bamboo, caoutchouc, gutta-percha, orang-outang, sago.

Turkish.—Bey, chibouk, janissary, sash, tulip, seraglio.

Polynesian.—Taboo, tattoo, kangaroo.

North and South American Indian.—Condor, hammock, lama, maize, moccasin, pampas, pemmican, potato, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, tomato, wigwam.

Most of the words in this section will be found in the lists given by Dr. Adams, Dr. Angus, Mr. Bain, &c., and are treated in detail in the best etymological dictionaries, especially those by Wedgwood, Müller, and Stormonth.

ADDENDUM.

[See Anglo-Saxon numerals, p. 231.]

The numerals *one*, *two*, and *three* were the most fully declined; those from *four* to *twelve* being partially declined.

The syllable *lif* in *endlif* (Gothic *ainlif*) and *twelf* is in reality a word meaning *ten*, and is another form of *tig*. (Instances of the interchange of *l* with *d* or *t*, and of a guttural with *b* or *v* are not uncommon. Compare *odor* with *oleo* in Latin; *lacrima* with *δάκρυον*; *glands* with *βλάνας*; the pronunciation of *laugh* with its spelling, &c.) *Eleven* is therefore *one + ten*, *twelve* is *two + ten*.

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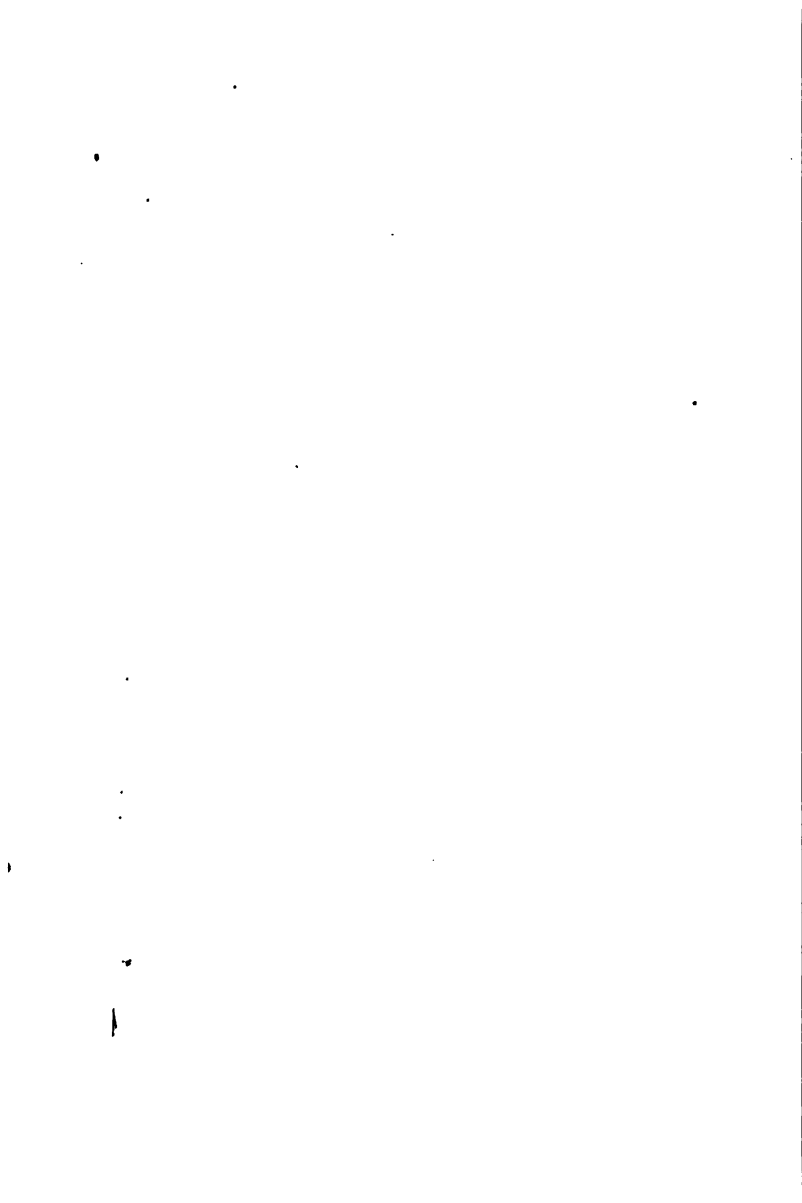
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